

**Students' Exposure to Political News on the Internet and
Political Awareness: A Comparison between Germany and Egypt**

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Abstract

The recent political events in Egypt, Libya, Yemen, and Tunisia (2011) have confirmed the key role of social networks (SNSs), as well as online political news in supporting citizens with their self-determination. Furthermore, “changes in the media landscape present new challenges for scholars interested in the relationship between the media and civil society. Additionally, the explosion of the Internet that started in advanced democracies and has spread through much of the globe provides new and unexplored pathways for communication. Moreover, the inclusion of the Internet in the media environment raises new questions for citizens, politicians, researchers, journalists, and government” (Oates, Owen & Gibson, 2006, p. 1).

This study looks at the relationships between young people’s exposure to political news on the Internet and their political awareness. It develops and applies an index for political participation composed of several variables measuring political interest, discussion, knowledge, and participation. The survey among students in both countries was administered in Arabic and German, while the master questionnaire was developed in English. The survey was conducted between April and June 2010 in Egypt at Minia University and in Germany at Technical university of Dresden. The sample size was 1000 (500 in each country) students from several departments representing different academic fields: three departments of Engineering, three departments of Humanities and Social Science, and finally three departments of Natural Science.

The study’s main research question was: “What is the impact of students’ exposure to political news on the Internet on their political awareness and civic activities?” The researcher started from the hypothesis that heavy use of political news on the Internet is positively related to political awareness. A further research question aimed at gauging the role of intervening variables such as gender and field of study for the relationship between the use of political news on the Internet and the level of political awareness.

Results show that there is a positive relationship between using political online news and political awareness. German students’ political awareness for German students was higher than Egypt student’s political awareness ($M=63.02$, $SD=15.65$, comparing to $M=45.72$, $SD= 17.65$ for Egyptians).

Keywords: Online Political News, Use Media, Political Awareness, Political Knowledge, Political Participation, Civic Activities, Egyptian and Germany Media System.

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Introduction

2011, “the year of anger in Arabic countries”

The 2011 year of anger in Arabic countries was a turning point for the political scene of many Arabic countries, whose dictatorships were caught off guard as thousands of demonstrators took to the streets in an expression of dissatisfaction with the status quo and demanded change. In other words, the recent political events in Egypt, Libya, Jordan, Syria, Yemen, and Tunisia in 2011 all confirmed the key role of social networks (Twitter, Facebook, MySpace, etc.) and online political news in supporting citizens with their self-determination and call-for-change to democratic political systems. Also, changes in the media landscape present new challenges for scholars interested in the relationship between the media and civil society and opened many research questions about the natural role of media in general and political content of online media in particular.

“The explosion of the Internet that started in advanced democracies and has spread through much of the globe provides new and unexplored pathways for communication, this inclusion of the Internet in the media raises new questions for citizens, politicians, researchers, journalists and government” (Oates, Owen & Gibson, 2006, p. 1). “Public media plays a major role in organizing the routines and rituals of everyday life and has so over the centuries in its different formats. Today, television is a central presence in domestic and family life. Inviting friends over to listen to music or play computer games has become an important cementing act for the building of friendship among teenagers. Also, reading the newspapers or listening to morning radio news is an almost universal accompaniment to people’s daily journey to work. In addition, many rituals marking important personal moments are bound up with media: going clubbing or to the cinema is central to courtship; weddings and family gatherings are increasingly captured on video” (Deacan, Golding & Graham, 1999, p. 2). In other words, we can see that public media has become an important and almost unavoidable part of everyday life.

More recently, going online has created more opportunities for newspapers and also helped different kinds of traditional media (print, audio, video, or audio and video). The movement away from the printing process can also help decrease costs, a primary catalyst of the online growth of media. Its role has been increased in the age of open channel or communication through the world wide web, the Internet technology which helped media to increase its size, competing with broadcast journalism and a diversity of audiences from all over the world (global audience), with increasingly diverse content (movies, political, social, sport programs, etc, as well as offering audio/video files, images, and other multimedia text). The possibility of interactive elements

between the public, which allow groups or individuals to communicate with each other, through e-mail or forums, letters to the editor (reader report or reaction), online surveys that could be offered, and chatting, is considered one of the key advantages of online media. There is no doubt that Internet technology has made communication much easier and less expensive; it is a great opportunity to communicate, learn, share, buy and sell, and build communities in virtual space or contacting others through social networks (SNSs) all these services have attracted many users and have penetrated into people's lives.

Furthermore, several types of media platforms have accepted the Internet, radio, television, and newspapers have extended their work into this new field through Internet websites (online TV and online newspaper websites). In addition, "the Internet allows people to do a variety of things through its applications. People use email or chat to keep in touch with people who are far away or with people who they meet every day, people use games on the web to have fun or to kill time, while others look for information through search engines. Individuals also go online to get weather reports, entertainment news, local or international news, business information, and political news" (Nozato, 2002, p. 3).

Therefore, with the previous statements in mind, the great importance of the Internet and online media in our daily lives is hard to ignore. Additionally, we cannot imagine our daily lives without news, both on Internet websites or a traditional medium, which plays a key role in our daily lives to get information, go shopping, travel, listen to music, etc. The author of the present work considers Internet news and online media in developing countries to have wide freedoms of speech in the absence of governmental control, such as censorship controls which limited traditional mass media in developing countries to types of news 'suitable' for publishing, or to deny or revoke newspaper licenses and stop its distribution, as it occurred often with several Egyptian newspapers such as "El Dostur" and "El Napa" because of their editorial policies as oppositional newspapers. The Internet gave these traditional newspapers a new opportunity to appear again as online newspapers.

Interestingly, youth participation in civil society and political life through the Internet is increasingly recognized as an important development objective. The opportunities for participation that young people experience in their communities are expected to influence their development and their transition to adulthood. For example, evidence that comes largely from developed countries indicates that young people who participate in community activities or are somehow connected to their communities are less likely than others to engage in risk-taking behaviors. Moreover,

behaviors and attitudes relating to community participation that individuals adopt as young people predict lifelong civic affiliations and perspectives.

In the last ten years, Egypt has faced many obstacles blocking democracy and freedom, especially in the economic and political environment. Before the 25th of January 2011, no one could predict the future of the political situation in Egypt; the monopoly of one political party, the deprivation of political and human rights, and government censorship forced on public media were all symptoms of a broken and destined to fail power structure. All these conditions led Egyptian young people to organize on the 25th of January 2011 in a revolution, soon to be followed by hundreds of worker demonstrations in all sectors during the following tumultuous and uncertain months. But after this massive youth revolution, Egypt is now on its way to becoming a democratic state with multiple political parties and proper procedures for election registration.

Moreover, changes to the constitution make it easier for individuals and political parties to qualify to run as parliamentary and presidential candidates. Consequently, the Muslim Brotherhood and other oppositional groups which were not allowed to participate in past parliamentary and presidential elections now have the freedom to organize and campaign; these once forbidden groups, as well as newly formed parties, now enjoy the freedom to participate in the newly opened political arena. In addition, more freedom has been released for media content after the abolition of the Ministry of Information in February 2011, an arm of the government which controlled media content, both print and broadcasting, under the former regime.

All these civilian and political changes instigated by Egypt's young people increased their political discussion, knowledge, and participation which related to promoting more political awareness among young people. In addition, it provided evidence and impetus for the author of this paper to study their political awareness. Not only because young people in Egypt represent a large percentage of the population (33.3%), but also because this strata of the society is familiar with this kind of new media tools, the Internet, and social networking (Facebook, YouTube, Yahoo Messenger, etc.) and more engagement in politics and societal organizations. Herein lies the importance of this study.

Additionally, the current generation of university student's in Egypt and Germany or anywhere receives vast amounts of information via national and international media outlets, high quality and outward-looking education, and is generously supported in their future careers by the university, they are often taught by professors and have a broad awareness of the outside world through various

media and Internet which free available at their university; for instance, Egyptian young people who have no Internet at home or does not have money to buy newspapers can find online newspapers on the internet for free at their universities. At the same time, they face challenges brought about by a large cultural and social gap between their generation, and their parents' and grandparents' generations. Besides, students are more technologically savvy and Internet plays a very important role in their lives. In addition to the following reasons as to why the author chose this study of focus:

Firstly, the increasing importance of the Internet as a source of information and political news in recent decades necessitates research into its growing influence on society. According to Oates, Owen & Gibson (2006): "Internet access has become nearly universal among young people, their facility with the technology has increased along with their trust in the veracity of content it convey, increasingly, young people have become producer of much political content, which has now come to influence mainstream media organization reports" (Oates, Owen & Gibson, 2006, p. 35).

Secondly, the world politics changes on the national and international spheres towards democracy, in particular, the political changes (civil wars, revolutions, coups, and demonstrations, the Iraqi war and more) that took place in the Arabic countries and Middle East region.

This change in the level of freedom and desirability for political change through Internet did not exist in Egypt before, all these acts were the "starting points" for the 25th January 2011 Egyptian revolution. Nobody will forget the millions of Egyptian protesters in the streets and the crucial role played by the internet in organizing these protests through posts on Twitter and Facebook calls against the government and its authoritarian rule that later led to the step down of Hosni Mubarak.

Thirdly, finally, news consumption and news interests among young people are of interest. "new forms of mass communication traditionally have had great appeal for younger people, younger citizens may claim new communication technologies as their own, developing particular expertise and novel applications" (Oates, Owen & Gibson, 2006, p. 20). However, "young people represent a non-homogeneous group and their media use of socio-economic status, such as the formal education, gender, and income, or parental-media use shows that younger generation is still significantly different from adult use patterns and interests" (Eimeren & Krist, 2004; Ferch-hoff & Neubauer, 1997). This use has, however, grown in the last few years from 2000 and 2010 as the Author will show below.

Finally, the author is interested in comparative studies and cultural integration. Swanson (1992) suggests that "comparative research is like entering foreign lands. Researchers who have invaded

the territories of cross-national studies encounter substantial diversity resulting from country-specific characteristics” (Musiałowska, 2008, p.7). Especially when comparing two countries as culturally different such as Egypt and Germany.

In sum, and as previous dissociations, the central idea to the current study looks at the relationships between young people’s exposure to political news on the Internet and their political awareness (in this paper political awareness is measured by an index based on questions about political interest, discussion, knowledge, and participation). The survey was administered in Arabic and German. The master questionnaire was developed in English. The survey was conducted between April and June 2010 in Egypt at Minia University and in Germany at Dresden University of Technology. The sample size was 1000 students from several departments representing different academic fields: three departments of Engineering, three departments of Humanities and Social Science, and finally three departments of Natural Science. The study’s main research question was: “What is the impact of students’ exposure to political news on the Internet on university student’s political awareness?”

The author of this research started from the hypothesis that heavy use of political news on the Internet is positively related to political awareness. A further research question aimed at the role of intervening variables such as gender and field of study for the relationship between the use of political news on the Internet and the level of political awareness. Additionally, this study presents a series of new research writings on the political communication on the Arabic countries, not only to address these issues of political awareness, but also to give a clear definition and new methodology and tools to answer the questions about measuring it. Moreover, new research about social network and its role in political transformation.

❖ **Dissertation structure:**

The dissertation begins with the title page followed by an abstract, acknowledgment, and list of contents and tables. The first chapter of this dissertation describes the political communication in the life of young people, and starts with an introduction about the political communication and young people’s. In particular, the use of online political news, online election campaigns, and the key role of the Internet in providing young people with the political information they need about the election campaigns, voting, or specific information about candidates. The author mentioned the literature up to now in this area. Finally, outlines the research questions and hypothesis and proposes a number of research questions and hypothesis built upon prior reading of the theoretical part and previous studies in this topic.

The **second chapter** describes the changing communication environment through the Internet age. It begins with an introduction about the changing of communication models in the age of the Internet, followed by a brief overview about the history of the Internet, the development and structure of the Internet, and how it differs from the traditional type of media. Due to the importance of the Internet as a new medium, the author supplies statistical numbers about the users of this medium and current relevant trend, including the increasing number of users every day. Moreover, this chapter highlights the important role of social networks (SNSs) in daily life and their role in politics, with further details about the role of SNSs in recent transformations in Egypt through focusing on the Egyptian revolution on the 25th of January 2011 and its' influence on the Egyptian political scene, numerous political parties, and the democratic process in Egypt. In addition, this chapter focuses on the role of socio-economic status and its effects on the use of the Internet. The author concludes this chapter with the effects of the Internet upon other media.

Chapter 3, explores the political awareness concept and similar constructs, starting with definitions of the different political concepts such as political awareness, cognitions, efficacy, knowledge, discourse, and participation. Moreover, the author elaborates on the relationship between using media in general and Internet in particular with these political concepts. Third, this chapter includes some information about youth voting. Finally, this chapter concludes with a common definition of political awareness and how to measure it, as well as the role of media in improving political awareness, especially the effects of online political news on political awareness.

In **chapter 4**, attention is given to the political and media systems in Germany and Egypt, which starts with an explanation and comparison of the political systems, political parties, human rights, and freedom in speech in Egypt and Germany. Later, this chapter continues with a comparison of the media systems (TV, Radio, Cinema, Newspaper, and Internet, etc.) in Egypt and Germany. Finally, the author concludes this chapter with an overview of the youth populations and their media consumption in both countries.

Chapter 5 addresses the methodology arrangements and study sample. The author deals with the geographical differences of the study population and the different specializations or fields of study at both universities. For instance, the sample was conducted in different colleges in order to have the most representative sample of the population. Third, the author explains the independent and dependent variables, and how they are measured. Finally, the chapter concludes with validity and reliability tests, and the statistical methods that were used to test the hypothesis of the study.

In chapter 6, this chapter deals with discussion and interpretation of the obtained results, in this chapter the author presents results comparing Egyptian and Germany university student's. Moreover, the results on the hypothesis are revealed, including the extent to which the young people in both countries, Germany and Egypt, are affected by the Internet and the major role the Internet plays in constructing the political awareness, exposure to online political news, and the results of the political awareness model.

In chapter 7, the author concludes his study with the summary and conclusion. Finally, the dissertation includes, recommendations for further research, references and sources arranged alphabetically. Afterwards, the dissertation ends with appendices A, B, and C, as well as the original questionnaire translated into three languages; German, Arabic and English. Moreover, some official documents that were given by the Egyptian government to the author as Permission for fieldwork are presented.

Chapter 1 Political Communication in the life of young people

1.1 Introduction to political communication

The author in this chapter is giving an overview of political communication research history and talking about stages of political communication research to understand the effects of political communication in young people life. “Communication is considered to be political if it relates to the exchange of messages among political actors. For example, most of what politicians do is political communication. Likewise, citizens communicate politics when they discuss political issues with friends or family members, phone in to political radio talks shows, or participate in political chats on the Internet. Demonstrations and other forms of protest are more expressive, sometimes even violent forms of political communication” (Schulz, 2008).

However, only a few people engage in such forms of communicative activity. Most citizens confine themselves to the role of passive spectators of politics that is presented by mass media. Nevertheless, the consumption of political media reports is a form of political communication too. Moreover; Jürgen Habermas (2008) indicated that the category of political actors includes all groups, organizations, and individuals who are participating in the process of collectively binding decision-making in society. Some of these actions – and the corresponding communication - take place backstage, i.e., in the arcane spheres of party assemblies, parliamentary commissions, diplomatic negotiations, and meetings in government offices. But a major part is performed in public, for example when politicians give public speeches, debate in a parliamentary plenum, or present statements in front of television cameras.

McNair (1995) observes that the term “political communication” has proven to be “Notoriously difficult to define with any precision, simply because both components of the phrase are then open to a variety of definitions, more or less broad.” The author proposes a definition which stresses the intentionality of political communication, which is described as “purposeful communication about politics” (McNair, 1995, p. 4., in Musiałowska, 2008, p. 13). In speaking about the stages of political communication research, Political communications in the past decades encountered many changes over several stages, until it took the form it looks nowadays. Firstly; communication used by political actors to achieve their own objectives, secondly, communication that is addressed to political actors by non-politicians (e.g., voters). Finally, media discourse understood as communication about political actors. In short, political communication can be seen as a system of dynamic interactions between political actors, the media and audience members, each of whom is

engaged in the process of producing, receiving and interpreting political messages (Blumler & Gurevitch, 1995).

One of the most important studies about political communication or the first stages of political communication history the study conducted by Lippmann in 1922 who started to study mass communication and politics through analyzing the New York Times coverage of the 1917 Russian revolution, also the role of mass media in public opinion information in democracy. After that many researchers in this time started to focus on the role of media in public opinion and political interest, such as Lasswell (1927), who started to study political science at University of Chicago and in his PhD dissertation has analyzed the effect of propaganda messages (who says what to whom via which effect). This was the first step to study political communication and the role of mass media in audience behavior and public opinion.

After that, in 1948 Lazarsfeld examined the mass communication effect of radio on American audiences and voting behavior in the presidential election of 1940. Furthermore, Joseph Klapper (1960) at Columbia University wrote a book about “the effect of mass communication that the media seldom have direct effects, but all these studies in the early period study the effect of traditional media such as radio or television and the effect on public opinion and political interest or participation in election campaigns. Recent research in the USA, similar to research of the 1960s about television in America, included results that 56.0% of the American public which responded to the survey reported that TV was their main source of political news, with 24% reading newspaper for political information, and only 14% reported that radio is the main source for political news” (Lynda Lee Kaid, 2004, pp. 4-6).

The second age of political communication, which started in the 1960s, was marked by the increasing importance of television, which dominated the political debate. This period was characterized by four transformations. First, television led to a reduction of exposure to party propaganda as it offered a broader platform for alternative directions and policies. This trend was further intensified by the decline of party press and other organizations attached to the political groupings. Second, television “constitutionally mandated to such nonpartisan norms as fairness, impartiality, neutrality (Blumler & Kavanagh, 199, p. 212) which became centre for political communication. “Third, television contributed to enlarging the audience since it penetrated also these segments of the electorate that were earlier difficult to reach and thus less prone to the media exposure. Simultaneously, party identification was loosening as a consequence of short-term influences which took a form of news events showing immediate successes and failures of political

actors. Finally, the fact that television news was able to exert such short-term influences led to modification of parties' tactics which had to adjust to the "media logic" (Mazzoleni, 1987).

Finally, the third age of political communication brought a rapid proliferation of different communication channels. As suggested by Blumler & Kavanagh, 1999, p. 213) "to politicians, the third age media system must look like a hydra-header beast, the many mouths of which are continually clamoring to be fed. When something happens, they are expected to tell the media what they are going to do about it well before they can be fully informed themselves. For journalists, the news cycle has accelerated, since more outlets combined with increased competition across them piles pressure on all involved to keep the story moving and to find angles on it. Journalists 'feeding frenzies' become yet more frantic. Time for political and journalistic reflection and judgment is squeezed". Simultaneously, "communication abundance changed how voters receive and decode political messages. New media increasingly individualize communication (Schulz, 2004) capacity that is particularly assigned to the Internet" (Castells, 1996 in Musiałowska, 2008, p. 15).

1.2. Political media use and effects in the life of young people

Political media use refers to people's use of both political media (such as newspapers or news magazines), and political content in all kinds of media including the Internet. Political content normally means nonfictional content dealing with political events, issues, institutions, etc. (e.g., political news, commentary, round tables)" (Peiser, 2008). Political information and political content in various mass media, e.g. television, radio, DVD, Internet and other mass media, are very important to promoting political knowledge, political participation, and political awareness among young people. Increasingly, "the Internet plays an increasing role in daily and political life. There have been widespread hopes that the new technology will help break down barriers, reduce hierarchies, and facilitate easier access to the political field as well as motivate new groups for civic involvement and political action (Jensen, 2006, p. 39).

The four most fundamental factors which have a strong effect in informing individuals about politics are family/home, school, peers, and media. Increasingly, media exposure is perhaps the most important predictor of learning from news" (Rhee & Capella, 1997; Sotirovic & McLeod, 2004). "Voters learn about issues, candidates, and traits of candidates "(Weaver, 1996). Numerous studies have indicated that media exposure, such as reading newspapers, listening to news on radio, and viewing news on national or local TV, is positively related to young people voter knowledge about the election.

Many studies mentioned the role of media in politics, and, researchers compared different types of media to indicate which one have a strong effect in politics. Giving an example, in a comparative analysis of six elections in various states from 1984 to 1992, Zhao & Chaffee (1995) found that TV news was consistently informative regarding issue differences among candidates. “A survey of North Carolina voters during the 1992 campaign found that TV news was the most significant predictor of knowledge of issue differences among candidates” (Chaffee, et al., 1994). Weaver & Drew (1995) also found exposure to TV news as a significant predictor of knowledge of candidates’ issue positions. Sotirovic & McLeod (2004) reported viewing campaigns on TV contributed to voters’ knowledge in the 2000 presidential election (Wei & Lo, 2008, p. 349). Consequently, political content on traditional or digital media have a strong effect on young people’s learning or knowledge about political issues, and participation in political activities which led us at the end to political awareness.

The press and broadcasted political content are the most important sources or mediators of contemporary political information and current affairs and they are one of the key agents of socialization and integration in complex modern societies. More than most other fields of public policy “making, the press and broadcasting have a pervasive effect on all areas of social and political life in advanced industrial society” (Humphreys, 1995, p. 2). In modern and democratic societies, “mass media use has become an important way to gain political knowledge” (Chaffee, et al., 1994; Choi & Becker, 1987; Scheufele & Nisbet, 2002). Recently we have seen the Internet supporting human rights, introducing different kinds of political activities through chat rooms, social networks, etc. All these activities have demonstrated that political influence can be successful via online actions. The example for this would be the political transformation in Arabic countries in 2011, as the author mentioned in chapter four in more detail.

Additionally, the Internet has increased the amount and the availability of political content. In recent years, the important role of the Internet as a source for political information especially "political information" about current political issues 'local, national and international' has increased, and the use of the Internet advantage on political aspects rose after 1996, when the Internet emerged as a major non-traditional medium used in political campaigning as candidates for presidential elections started to employ the Internet in election campaigns. Moreover, the Internet has now become a leading source of political news or campaign news for young people, and the role of social networking sites such as Twitter and Facebook is a notable part of the story. Fully 42.0% of those ages 18 to 29 say they regularly learn about the campaign from the Internet, the highest

percentage for any news source. In January 2004, just 20% of young people said they routinely got campaign news from the Internet (Pew, 2008).

1.3. The role of Political communication in Election campaigns

Increasingly, “since its introduction to the world in the mid-1990s, the Internet has emerged as a new medium or channel for political and election campaign information” (Johnson, Braima, & Sothirajah, 1999; Kaye & Johnson, 2002). Past studies have found that online exposure to “political information was related to political knowledge” (Shah, McLeod, & Yoon, 2001). Furthermore, the linkage between exposure to online campaign news and knowledge of political leaders and parties was found in the 1998 midterm (Norris, 2000) and the 2000 presidential election (Kenski & Stroud, 2006; Sotirovic & McLeod, 2004). Drew and Weaver (2006) reported exposure to Internet news as a significant predictor of voter learning in the 2004 presidential election.

Additionally, through the political content which is available on the Internet, “the Internet news influence on voters’ opinion formation and on the election outcome, Internet as a widely available source of campaign information used by citizens, journalists, and strategists. Candidates have more to gain and more to lose in this new media environment. Citizens can also become actively involved in interacting with the candidates’ campaigns while never leaving their computer. In many countries nowadays politically interested citizens can have a potentially greater voice and impact on the day-to-day campaign agenda simply by consistently offering their opinions and developing a reputation online” (Semetko, 2009).

In addition, the development of political conversation networks can lead to sustained campaign involvement and political action (Knoke, 1990; Leighley, 1990). Among the most famous of these presidential election campaigns through the Internet websites "the candidate for the presidency of the White House, the current President of the United States of America, Barack Obama in 2009 used the Internet advantages and characteristics to get public support "International, global and national" and donations for his election campaign. “Over the past decades, the amount of available political information has expanded, thanks in part to the Internet. Political candidates also have been using the Internet to update individuals through e-mail to provide information about their issue positions” (Kenski & Stroud, 2006, p. 173).

Election campaigns are among the most important events in the lives of democracies and societies in transition. Campaigns often constitute the high points in public debate about political issues. Election campaign communication takes different forms in different national and regional contexts.

It is shaped by both party and media systems and by the regulatory environment governing the campaign process. Election communication is also influenced by the balance of party and media forces in shaping the news agenda, and that balance has been tipped by the increasing role played by citizens and interest groups in generating messages and news about parties, leaders, and issues (Semetko, 2009). The politically interested have a vast array of places to find campaign news, particularly in media systems with a diverse supply of daily newspapers and a well-established public broadcasting system. Television continues to be the main source of information for most people at election time. "Television news is the most common vehicle through which particularly the undecided voters and people who are politically uninterested get information about campaign events" (Semetko, 2009).

Media system changes are a major factor driving the modernization and "Americanization" of election campaigns. The term "Americanization" has been criticized for being applied by some scholars as a shorthand reference to the range of new techniques and opportunities being used to influence voters at election time in countries around the world. Some studies look at the relationship between Internet access and online exposure to information and political efficacy, knowledge, participation and show that "Internet access and online exposure to political information or information about election campaigning are significantly associated with these important political variables (age, house income and education) and the Internet also can expand the number participating and political knowledge (Kenski & Stroud, 2006, p.173).

In Germany, major changes have been observed by long-term studies showing that strategy or horse race have become increasingly salient in election coverage over the years. In the main evening flagship news programs on television, the top candidates are nowadays more often seen with exciting and colorful pictures, which was uncommon in television news campaign reporting in the past (Schulz & Zeh, 2005). This is partly due to the news discussions of televised debates that have been launched in recent election campaigns (Semetko, 2009, May 28).).

In Egypt, the Internet news is often perceived as displacing other traditional media, especially in political news coverage, because the space of freedom of political content in online media such as Internet websites, blogs and online journals is more than traditional media and because national and government media are under control of governmental censorship that controls national and traditional media. In recent years, as we will see in the upcoming chapters the Internet political news and traditional media political content in blogs in Egypt have succeeded through Internet websites to organize demonstrations, calling for political reform, strikes, and devolution of

authority "non-patrimonial". They were also able to embarrass the Egyptian government in many situations and succeeded to change some political decisions. The Internet allows independent, inconvenience, and opposition groups to announce their ideas, opinions, and activities without any control or restrictions from the government. For instance, Kefaya group, April 6 Youth, Liberal Youth, and Muslim Brotherhood groups were freely able through the Internet to express their ideas and political opinion. The Internet became the new medium because these activities were not found in the past years.

In sum, no one can deny the great importance of the political role of the Internet in our daily lives because the Internet is considered the most common and fastest mass media that reaches a huge and diverse audience in different areas at the same time. The Internet has played a role in presidential elections and is used for online political information about election campaigns, such as what happened during the American presidential election of 2000. It is obvious that as young people moved through the media environment of the campaigns on their way to the polls many has got their information from websites produced by candidates, parties and other political organizations. Indeed, an estimated 28.0% of 18–29 year olds received most of their information about the campaigns via the Internet in 2004, “making them the age group most reliant on new media for political information about the election “(Pew Research Center, 2004). Attention to political information on the web by average citizens has also grown, from an estimated 4.0% of the US general public in 1996, to 29.0% in 2004, when an estimated 75 million Americans, representing 37.0% of the adult population and over half of all Internet users, went online to get information about the campaigns (Michael Xenos & W. Lance Bennett, 2007, p. 444). Now the Internet plays the key role in presidential election campaigning, the Internet access and online exposure to information about the presidential campaigns are significantly and positively associated with the important political variables (Kenski & Stroud, 2006), and political candidates using the Internet to update individuals through e-mail to provide information about their issue positions (Kenski & Stroud, 2006; Bimber, 1998; El Nagar, 2007). Also the Internet can expand the numbers of political interest and political participation through the huge amount of political information.

1.4. The literature up to now in this area

This part aims to highlight the background literature that is relevant to Internet and its role in our life in general and young people particularly. There has been a lot of empirical research into these matters with varied and inconclusive result, some studies show the Internet to open up spaces for discussion, with participants seeking different viewpoints (Stromer, 2002, 2003), introducing new

participants to the discussion (Schneider, 1997), and participants being generally more supportive of diverse and tolerant points of view than non-users (Robinson, Neustadtl & Kestnbaum, 2002). Hussein, 1998 & Taya, 2000 indicated that "the access to information is the most important benefit of the Internet users, also get news, entertainment, funny, spends spare time, and finally e-mail". (Hussein, 1998 & Sami, 2000). Young people use the Internet as most important source for information (in U.S using the Internet as one of the most important source for news instead of traditional media (Dorvan, 2000) also get news, entertainment, funny, spend spare time, and finally use e-mail (Hussein, 1998 & Taya, 2000).

Several studies have entered on using Internet news and electronic newspaper, some of this study about use Internet as a source of information or people use Internet for email or chat with friends. Others use Internet for games or to kill spare time or looking for information through search engines. People also go to Internet and online media to get weather report, songs, entertainment news, local or international news, business news, political news. (Bromley, 1995) focused on, the impact of the Internet uses on traditional media and found that interviewees' exposure to more traditional media more than exposure to the Internet.

Daniel, 1998, assesses on the role of Internet as new media and emphasizes that the Internet affect in the educational process, which is an important source to make the pleased change), Abu Youssef, 1998, found, the number of Egyptian journalists who can use Internet is very limited.

Dahvan 2001, examined the impact of Internet in society, in his study aimed to identify the impact of the Internet, newspapers and broadcasting on community and its relationship with engagement of civic activity, he found that the exposures of the both traditional and online media have a positive impact on young people civic engagement. Some studies mentioned who use the Internet?, (Charney & Greenberg ,2001, Ferguson & Perse, 2000), Kang & Atkin,1999) Kaye , 1998), Lin , 2002, Papacharissi & Rubin ,2000) for commercial purposes (Eighmey ,1997), Korgaonkar & Wolin ,1999), Kaye and Johnson,2002) Johnson & Kaye,2003); Lupia & Philpot,2005), focusing in particular on the importance of political interest in the context of Internet use for seeking political knowledge, political information and the major role for Internet news in political knowledge, political participation and political awareness. "Positively influence that the Internet have on international knowledge development in young people in united state" (Christopher, 2008) strongly importance role of political context of Internet in political interest for young people (Eighmey, 1997); Korgaonkar & Wolin, 1999), Kaye &Johnson, 2002), Johnson & Kaye, 2003); Lupia & Philpot, 2005).

Unlike traditional media, the Internet allows its audience to select and choose the extent of their exposure to political information. Its potential for interactivity between audiences and sources, and its wealth of information are all thought to facilitate widespread political change. The Internet's unique transmission capability has altered the flow of information throughout society and consequently has impacted the political behavior of the general public (Bonchek, 1997 in Song-In Wang, 2007, p. 381).

In addition, some studies indicated that Internet effects on political behaviors have become one of the most important research topics in recent years. However, reports have been mixed regarding the links between political information-seeking on the Internet and political participation. Some studies showed that Internet access has positive effects on civic engagement (Jennings & Zeitner, 2003; Tolbert & McNeal, 2003). Nisbet and Scheufele (2004) studied the effects of Internet campaign exposure on political efficacy, political knowledge, and campaign participation, and found that the role of the Internet in promoting active and informed citizenship is modest at best. Others found limited effects of Internet use on political knowledge, political efficacy and political participation (Hardy & Scheufele, 2005; Norris, 1999; Scheufele & Nisbet, 2002). Moreover, some studies evaluate political participation through Internet in both election and non-election periods (e.g. Song-In Wang, 2007). On the other hand, the Internet does not cause people to suddenly become politically active or participation, because some people participate in politics without understanding or using online political news.

The above mentioned literature supports the idea of the political news role in promoting political, interest, knowledge and participation that related to political awareness, in addition to encouraging young people to participate and engage in societal activities. These studies indicated that Internet has more advantages for users than traditional media (e.g. television, newspaper, radio, etc).

❖ **The literature in this area can be summarized as the following:**

1. Individuals are different in terms of why they use political media content, some people watch, read, or listen to political stories to know more about what is happening in their society, while others do it for entertainment purposes. (Kaye & Johnson, 2002; McLeod & Becker, 1981; Gunter, 1991; Kim, Wyatt, & Katz, 1999; Robinson & Davis, 1990; Shaw, 1977).
2. Why do individuals use political media content? (I.e. motivations for political media use) is a critical factor in whether one becomes more actively engaged in politics (Becker, 1976; Garramone, 1985). Information-related motivations for media use is more likely related to

political engagement than entertainment-related motivations (Shah, McLeod, & Yoon, 2001).

3. The Internet is celebrated for offering the possibility of many-to-many communication (Coleman & Gotze, 2001, 17), for bridging time and place (Eriksen & Weigard 2003; Street, 1997, 195), and for the transmission of large amounts of information (O'Hara 2002). It is generally seen as "contributing to new ways of knowing, new strategies for gathering, storing, retrieving, and utilizing information" (Dahlgren 2004). "Because of its horizontal, open, and user-friendly nature, the Internet allows for easy access to, and thus greater participation, in the public sphere" (Brants, 2005, 144). Together with the low (social and economic) costs of publishing, this has created great optimism regarding the Internet's potential.
4. Some studies focused on the political news on the Internet and presidential elections (Farnsworth, Owen, 2004). This study demonstrates that both the frequency of online use and the salience of the election information obtained can be explained through the particular uses of online information engaged in by audience members. Novel and interactive forms of online information were particularly important for predicting the frequency which users accessed the Internet for news and information about elections. Audience members who actively sought information about candidates and issues tended to use the knowledge they gained online to decide how to cast their ballot (Farnsworth, Owen, 2004).
5. Other studies focused on young people and political content on the Internet.
6. Studies focused on the connections between political content and engagement in politics (Wang Song, 2007) show political use of Internet precedes political attitudes, and then attitudes lead to political participation, and political use of the Internet promotes political interest and feelings of trust, efficacy, and participation in campaigns and politics. These studies focused on the role of this information in the public knowledge of local, national or international political issues and its role in increasing political awareness and political cultural.
7. Studies focused on the role of online political content. Cao (2008) examined the relationship between exposure to political comedy shows and political knowledge during the 2000 and 2004 primary campaigns in the USA. This study used telephone surveys sponsored by PEW January 2000 and December 2003 and included measures of exposure to comedy shows content in American television and political knowledge; the results indicated that the positive interactive relationship between exposure to political comedy shows and this

relation was much higher in 2004 than 2000, as well as there being a positive relationship between political participation and political knowledge.

8-Studies focused on the relationships between the uses of media and political awareness and found that they are most strongly associated with informational media, such as Internet use followed by newspaper reading. Watching national nightly TV news or cable news also was positively associated. Political engagement increases during the life course, but lower starting levels among youth have offset increases in older cohorts (Miller, 1992).

5. Research questions and hypothesis

Based on my review of previous literature, I arrived to the main research question of this study to investigate the role of political news on the Internet in influencing political awareness among university student's in two very different countries. As described in chapter (4). Awareness is overarching construct that indicated by several sub-constructs. "Political awareness" is the overarching construct for several political variables comprising political interest, knowledge, discourse and participation.

1.5.1 Research questions

The main research question of this study to investigate the role of political news on the Internet in influencing political awareness for university student's. A further research questions aims at the role of intervening variables has been mentioned in study survey, such as gender and field of study for the relationship between the use of political news on the Internet, the use of traditional media, and the level of political awareness. To answer this question a national survey has been conducted among samples of students in one university in Egypt and one in Germany.

1.5.2. Research Hypothesis

A research hypothesis reflects a prediction of the results of the present study, and according to previous literature I assume that university student's with a higher level of use of political news on the Internet have much more political awareness about the political situation in their country and all over world." The researcher started from the hypothesis that heavy use of political news on the Internet is positively related to political awareness, and the following research hypothesis could be identified:

- ❖ H1. Use of political news on the Internet is positively related to political awareness of university student's.

- ❖ H2. There are significant differences between German university student's and Egyptians in the level of political awareness.
- ❖ H3. University student's with a high level of democratic system will have higher levels of political awareness
- ❖ H4. The use of political news on the Internet shows differences between males and females in both countries in the level of political awareness.
- ❖ H5. The use of political news on the internet shows differences between males and females in both countries in their level of political awareness.
- ❖ H6. There are statistically significant differences between young Egyptians and Germans in the level of participation in society organization.

Chapter 2: Changing communication environment through the Internet age

2.1 Introduction

The Internet is “a network of computer networks, joining many governments, universities and private computers together and providing an infrastructure for the use of E-mail, bulletin boards, file archives, hypertext documents, databases and other computational resources” (Slater, 2002, p. 6). The Internet, though, owes its existence to developments in computers and communication between computers. The US military developed a number of precursors to the Internet, the best known of which is ARPANET; however, ARPANET use was restricted to military and scientific personnel after the U.S National Science Foundation (NSF) originally provided administrative oversight of the Internet. But in 1995, the NSF ceased its administration of the Internet, and commercial use was permitted. The world wide web (WWW), developed by Tim Berners-Lee, soon replaced file transfer protocol as the most common application used on the Internet. “The WWW is a program that allows the use of multimedia, graphics, audio, and video files. Consequently, the WWW offered much more intuitive sense of being in a particular location, and of navigating from one site to another.

First of all, the author will present some pages about the history of the internet and developments beginning with (ARPANET) and connected mainframe computers and networks; the second stage involved adding desktop PC's which are connected through the Internet. This was followed by the third stage in development, which was by adding wireless connections to laptop computers, telephone wires, Internet connectivity, mobile phones, and currently the Internet is evolving to allow ubiquitous use of cellular networks.

2.2 Internet History and development

The Internet has revolutionized the computer and world communications like nothing before. The telegraph, telephone, radio, and computer have all set the stage for the Internet's unprecedented integration of capabilities. The Internet is at once a worldwide broadcasting capability, a mechanism for information dissemination, and a medium for collaboration and interaction between individuals and their computers with no regard to geographic location. The first introduction for the Internet was in the early nineties of the twentieth century when the Internet was a network of computers used in the transfer of governmental information, followed by the adaption in academic research and scientific discussions among researchers; but the initial idea of the Internet was conceived in 1945 when Vannevar Bush invented a new machine known as the Memex Machine for the organization of human knowledge, linking information and enabling researchers to convert

information into an electronic format with easy access to relate that information (Hosni, 2003, p. 22-25).

Two years later in 1947, AT&T, a U.S. company specialized in communications, developed transistors, which became the most important technologies to be adopted by the Internet and led to the digital revolution; without transistors, the Internet as we know it would not have been possible. AT&T also introduced the first commercial modem. It converted digital computer data into analog signals for transmission across its long distance network. This development allowed computers to communicate over normal telephone circuits used for standard voice phone calls (Getisp, 2009). Besides, one of the most important reasons that led to the increasing number of the Internet users was the idea of hypertext provided by Ted Nelson (1962), relying on the idea of Bush. This innovation helped people to send and receive information and communication links between the controls and follow up on it.

Four years later, the Advanced Research Projects Agency at the U.S. Ministry of Defense established the first electronic network which linked a number of computers and allowed the public to exchange information and communications between each other through these computers. This network was known as *ARPANET* (Hosni, 2003, p. 20-21). “In 1973 *ARPANET* reached the global network through the first link between the international network at London University and the royal radar establishment in Norway. The idea of *Ethernet networking* also emerged this year, which meant linking local networks to each other. The idea of *Gateways* followed, which meant linking large networks together. Around this time TCP (*Transmission Control Program*) appeared, which are specific rules for the transfer of files across the network which facilitates the transfer of data within the network. Commercial activity also appeared for the first time over the Internet through “*Tel Net*” network services. It was only a couple of years after *ARPANET* began that the first e-mail program for the network was created by Ray Tomlinson in 1971. Tomlinson is also credited as the one who decided to use the (at) (@) symbol in email addresses. He sent the first email in the same year. Five years later, in 1976, the Queen of England sent her first e-mail from a British Army base as a part of a demonstration of networking technology” (Getisp, 2009, p. 3).

On January 1, 1983 the *ARPANET* and every network and computer in the world attached to the *ARPANET* officially adopted the TCP/IP networking protocol, which was developed in the 1970s by pioneering network engineers Vinton Cerf and Bob Kahn. From then on, all networks using TCP/IP were collectively known as the Internet. The standardization of TCP/IP allowed the number of Internet sites and users to grow exponentially. Consequently, by June 1997, 171 countries were

connected, with 195 countries of a world total able to at least send or receive e-mail. The swift development of the Internet, particularly over the last three decades, started in the early 1980's (Donsbach, 1999, p.75). "The original ARPANET grew into the Internet. Internet was based on the idea that there would be multiple independent networks of rather arbitrary design, beginning with the ARPANET as the pioneering packet switching network, but soon to include packet satellite networks, ground-based packet radio networks and other networks" (Leiner et.al, 2009, p. 3).

Until the early 1990s, the Internet was simply a network of computers used to transmit government data and enable academic research and conversations. With the initiation of the World Wide Web and online subscription service providers such as America Online (AOL), CompuServe, and Prodigy, Internet traffic began its exponential upswing. In 1998, worldwide Internet users approached 147 million. This was up from only 36 million in 1997 and a mere 19 million in 1996. The Commerce Net/Nielsen Media survey in June 1998 found that Internet users over 16 years in the United States and Canada grew to 79 million from 58 million at the end of 1997 (Thora, 1998, p. 3).

"In the 1990's Internet penetration started to spread throughout the Arab world. Although the region generally suffered from 'being on the low end of the digital divide' (Abdulla, 2007, p. 35). Facing many challenges, including a lack of human and economic IT resources, funds for IT researches and development, and solid telecommunications infrastructure, this situation is rapidly changing, since many Arab countries are currently striving hard to increase Internet penetration rates. This varies greatly in different Arab states, yet the region as a whole has witnessed an unprecedented rise in Internet penetration levels over the last few years (Abdulla, 2007, p. 45; Warf & Vincent, 2007; Internet World Stats, 2009).

Although the Internet started 28 years ago, it did not find favor with newspaper publishers as an online platform until 1993, when the World Wide Web came onto the scene. The Internet allowed online publisher to emerge, and the WWW helped them to flourish and become the major platform for online newspapers, or newspapers published on the Internet. As of May 27th 1998, Editor and Publisher Interactive listed a total of 2,859 newspaper (both dailies and weeklies) websites in the world including 1,749 based in the United States (Feng, C. 1999, p. 1).

During this time, not only newspapers went online through the Internet, but also several traditional media involved through Internet websites. The new digital media represents an undeniable revolution in the development of modern journalism due to the major advantages they provide, from

the supply as well as the demand perspectives. The use of these new systems is characterized by the speed with which the news can reach the reader, the low cost of distributing the information, or the chance to establish more direct contact and interaction with readers. All this has indicated that news and digital newspapers are one of the most sought after resources for Internet users (Nielsen et al., 2003, 2004). The author will focus in the following pages on the structure and features of social networking on the Internet, and the role of online political news and other media outlets on political transformation in Egypt.

2.3 Structure, features and phenomena of the Internet

2.3.1 Many to many communication

The communication changed from face-to-face communication between sender or creator of the message and receiver at the same place and the same time to “Intra-group communication” or “Institution communication” and “two-way communication” through real time and virtual place using Internet elements, for instance, e-mail, forums, chat rooms, discussion groups, news groups, Facebook, Twitter, and all kinds of social networks. Also available were electronic bulletin boards with the advantage of using this medium for free from any computer connecting to the Internet. All these advantages give users a golden opportunity to communicate and participate in society activities, as well as exchange information, texts, photos, music, and video through “NNTP” (Network News Transfer Protocol) (Hosni, 2003, p.71-83). In addition, scholars interested in media theories, for instance, “Gate Keeper”, try to indicate the role of the Internet in society.

Moreover, the changing in the communication process in the age of the Internet, giving for example, new concepts of communication appeared, such as “Computer-Mediated Communication” “Internet-Based Communication”, “Interactivity Communication”, “Alternative Communication”, “Independence Communication”, “Chatting”, “News Groups”, “Multimedia”, and “Instant Messages”. The old concept of communication changed from “one to many” to “many to many” or “Citizen Journalistic” which means individuals or everyone able to use a computer and searching in Internet websites. It is possible for them to become a journalist or message creator (Hosni, 2003, p. 53-54). Consequently, if you have a computer connected to the Internet, then you have a good medium for contacting and interacting with others.

In addition, “online media, which refers to technical communication media where digital content is transmitted from any kind of several to distant receivers via the Internet (TCP-IP) transmitted control protocol, Internet protocol or other digital networks. Not all kinds of digital media are online media: multimedia CDs, DVDs, DVD players, MP3, or media application are referred to as

offline media as a content stored at the place where it is present. Except broadcasting media, such as television, radio, or broadcasting cable, (cable television, satellite television) which broadcasts to all receptive devices” (Schwinger, 2008, p. 3365). Moreover, “online media distinguish themselves from traditional media as a new media and it allows users to enjoy browsing their content and offer not only text but also digital images and videos files. It can present the most recent information and links to associated new articles from local to international topics. This an evidence that online media attracts the audience for several reasons; personalization of news, audio and video news, and interactivity contact with readers by email, chat rooms, and forums” (Yoshiko Nozaki, 2002, p. 2).

In sum, the Internet technology has made communication much easier and less expensive. It is a good opportunity to communicate, learn, share, buy and sell, and perhaps most importantly, to build communities in virtual space. It has attracted many people and has penetrated into everyone’s life. Mass media also have accepted the Internet as a new technology; radio, television, and newspapers have extended their work into this new field. Additionally, the media product in the Internet age has become more widespread and more accurate and diversity of audience with a huge appetite for more information which has become available through the Internet. Also the audience plays a more positive role in message production and the receiver now is not the only controller in the communication process.

2.3.2 Interactivity

There is no doubt that the new technology has helped different kinds of media (print, broadcasting) after many of these media evolved into Internet websites, playing an important role in our daily life. Moreover, the traditional media role has increased in the age of open channels and Internet technology; the invention of the Internet has helped traditional media to increase the diversity of their reached audience (global audience or international receiver) by a variety of media contents or messages (movies, political, social, sport programmers, etc.) that has also increased with new offers of audio, video, image, and other multimedia text and visual files available in different languages. This growth has also been fed by the possibility of interactive elements between the public and journalists through feedback, which allow groups or individuals to communicate with each other through e-mail, forums, letters to the editor, question and answer between sender and receiver, and online polls that could be offered in websites and chat rooms and social networks. This is considered one of the most important advantages of online media.

Scholars have also been interested in giving a definition for interactivity, for instance, several researchers’ defined interactivity as "audience participation" (Charity, 1995; Merritt, 1998; Rosen,

1992; & Lawrence, 1993). Newspaper readers also can participate because the Internet is a new medium that could extend the interactivity option of newspapers. According to Jane B. Singer, regarding "the interactive element, the result is a trend toward an integrated newsroom, where journalists produce content for several types of media" (Singer, 2008, p. 3364). (Schultz, 2003, Charity, 1995; Merritt, 1998; Rosen, 1992) focused on the interactivity option in online journalism through a content analysis of 100 U.S. daily newspapers and found that the Internet has the potential to increase interactive attempts in online journalism and tied U.S. online newspaper successes to used hyperlinks, online polls, chat rooms, online discussions, forums, and e-mail addresses of editors to encourage contact with readers. Nozato (2000) agreed with him when he gave a definition for online newspaper interactivity as meaning that people instantly send feedback to the writer by e-mail.

Generally, interactivity is often used to describe technological features of the new media (Vorderer, 2000) and defined as "a measure of a medium's potential ability to let the user exert an influence on the content and/or form of the mediated communication" (Jensen, 1998, p. 201; Steuer, 1992). According to this definition, the audience is not a passive receiver of information, but rather an active creator. Thus, many authors have defined interactivity based on how many and what types of features are available for users to fulfill interactive communication. In the context of the Internet, for example, these features might include bulletin boards, search engines, registration and online ordering forms (McMillan, 1998); "curiosity-arousal devices, games, user choice options, and surveys" (Ha & James, 1998); or, "e-mail links, feedback forms, and chartrooms" (Massey & Levy, 1999).

Indeed, interactivity refers to "a process involving users, media, and messages, with an emphasis on how messages relate to one another" (Sundar & Brown, 2003, p. 34-35). Consequently, interactivity in other words refers to the relation between users and media, and the influence between each other or exchanged messages between senders and receivers. This describes the positive role of receiver in the communication process. Also Rafaeli & Sudweeks (1997) agree with this, writing that interactivity communication requires all messages in a sequence to relate to each other, according to them, interactivity means "effort" or "responsiveness". Moreover, they gave a definition of interactivity as "an expression of the extent that in a given series of communication exchanges, any third (or later) transmission (or message) is related to the degree to which previous exchanges referred to even earlier transmission". James (1998) also proposed that interactivity should be defined in terms of the extent to which the communicator and the audience respond to, or are willing to facilitate, each other's communication needs, or "the relationship between two or more

people who, in a given situation, mutually adapt their behaviors and actions to each other” (Downes & McMilla, 2006, p. 158). Rice (1984) investigated the role of the receiver in the communication process and suggested fully interactive media implies that sender and receiver roles are interchangeable (p.35). Steur (1992) agreed with Rice and indicated that interactivity is “the extent to which users can participate in modifying the form and content of a mediated environment in real time” (p. 84).

Several scholars have focused on the interactivity option in online media and show that the interactivity option and using mail, forum, and chat rooms, audio and video files in online media are important elements of the Internet (Tanjev, 1998, 2003; McMillan, 2000; Nagwa, 2001; Wendy & Gerson, 1999). Interactivity is one of the most prominent elements of the Internet; especially with the increasing importance of the Internet as an information medium or a mean source for information and news, also the participation of citizens and young people in political life has increased in the last decades using the interactivity elements of the Internet news. These features gave them the possibility to send feedback or reaction about political events and convey their public opinion about current events in their countries, or about international politic issues, or participate by themselves as communicators to express their views and share with others.

The interactive features of the Internet seemingly imply that online media have more advantages than traditional media forms. People’s expectations for new types of journalism are driving them online. Some have begun seeing the Internet as an alternative to traditional media (Nozato, 2002, p. 2). The Internet is also considered a very safe media and without governmental censorship (gatekeeper); young people can participate without the fear of punishment from their government, especially in dictatorial governments. Moreover, the Internet is a new medium that could extend interactivity options in print media, especially in newspaper websites or online journals. Joseph stated that any attempts to define interactivity are futile at this time. “Nobody knows, because the field of interactive communication is in its infancy, what the possibilities are. You have to base your definition of interactivity on what’s out there” (Downes & McMilla, 2006, p.170). In other words, in the era of new communication and changes every day in the software industry and computer programs, changes in new communication are also being developed quite quickly, and with the increase of Internet users the interactivity elements will become more and more important. However, you cannot give a clear definition because interactivity changes every day. As you will see below the author introduces some definitions from old studies in this field.

In conclusion, Interactivity is considered as one of the most important advantages of the communications revolution to have occurred in all communication models and communication processes, particularly in the relation between sender and receiver. In general, “scholars have employed the term of interactivity to refer to everything from face to face exchanges to computer mediated communication” (Downes & McMillan, 2000, p. 157). In addition, they stated that there has been little agreement among them about the conceptualization of interactivity. Interactivity not only has been identified as a core concept of new media, but also interactivity seems to be at the core of new media technologies, and studying it in the context of networked communication has broad social implications (Bucy, 2004, p, 373).

As previously discussed, interactivity as a concept refers to a reaction or responsiveness and exchange messages between sender and receiver, which considered a two-way communication. In other words, according to Li (1998), “it can be shown that the dominant paradigm in traditional communication, one sender to many receivers, can be changed on the Internet to many senders to many receivers”. Rice (1984) and Rogers (1995) suggested that “interactivity communication requires that sender and receiver roles be interchangeable”. In the Figure 2.1 the Author developed the following figure to summarize the literature about the definition of interactivity.

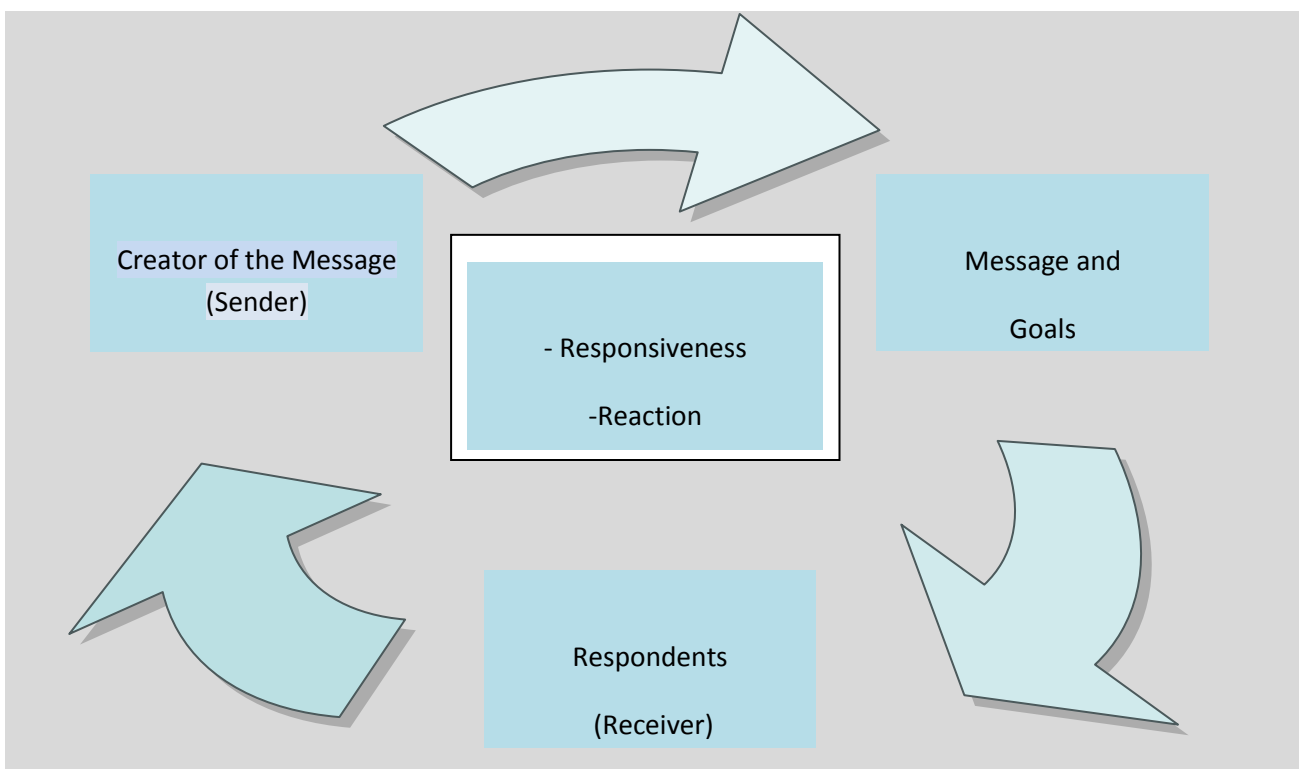


Figure 2.1. Interactivity Mode

2.3.3 Credibility

Credibility also is one of the most important features and phenomena of the Internet. The importance of credibility in human communication had already been recognized long before modern communication research emerged as a scientific discipline. At the opening of the twentieth century credibility became a central concept in communication research, first in propaganda, then in other areas such as advertising or political communication.

In the Arabic dictionary the definition of "credibility" is: "honest" and "true in speech", "against lying" (Mohamed, 2004, p. 499). Credibility requires evidence and credibility of the sincerity of speech or subject matter, i.e. "evidence of the truth"; when we believe a human being we support what he/she has said (El-Adnani, 1986, p. 374).

English scholars also were interested in defining credibility. In English, "credibility is defined as a characteristic or force that inspires faith and belief, the belief capacity for belief or the quality or power of inspiring belief" (Merriam Webster, 2010); furthermore, credibility refers to "appearance of truth or authenticity", "believability", "plausibility", "verisimilitude" (Roget's, 1995). To be plausible and credible is the quality of being believable or trustworthy and credible.

The word 'credibility' was used for the first time in English literature in 1957. What about synonyms for the word credibility in English? "The vulnerability of the ratification of believability and some languages use the same word "credibility" for the translation of the term believability (Fogg et al, 2001, p. 61-62). The concept of credibility is very complicated to study and to give it a clear definition; however, scholars investigated it in various fields and in several studies. Generally, they indicated that credibility means "believability" (Tseng & Fogg, 1999, p. 39). On the other hand, authors used other words to define credibility, for instance: "believability", "accuracy", "fairness", "bias", "trustworthiness", "completeness", "reliability", or "attractiveness" of the media themselves, of news reporters, or of the coverage of specific news issues (Metzger et al, 2003, p. 308).

Scholars in mass communication and media studies are also interested in the credibility concept. El-Menofy (2006) stated that credibility means trust and ratification of the public of the communication content (p. 78). According to this, credibility has to include all the elements of the communication process "sender, receiver, messages, and feedback. Credibility also means feeling satisfied with the audience and convincing them of meaningful information which helps them in development in the same line with the values and principles of their society, which helps to build

and not to destroy, provided that the available values of freedom give the audience (via its content) a high degree of awareness, education, experience, and the ability of measurement and evaluation.

According to the Pew Research Center 2010, in spite of several studies indicating how people trust in online media and the credibility of online news, the public continues to take a skeptical view of reporting from major news outlets, especially online news. For instance, not more than one-third of the public said that they believe all or most of the reports by 14 major news organizations. There has been little change in public views of media credibility since 2008. Since the late 1990s, however, there has been significant erosion in the believability ratings of several news organizations. For example, since “1998 ABC News, CBS News, and NBC News have all seen substantial declines in the percentages saying they believe all or most of what they say (among those who say they can rate those organizations). Currently, about two-in-ten say that they believe all or most information from ABC News 21.0%, CBS News 21.0% and NBC News 20.0% – down from about three-in-ten in 1998” (Pew Research Center, June 8-28, 2010, p. 74). Besides, Cassidy (2007) stated that the Internet news is viewed as moderately credible overall and that online newspaper journalists rated Internet news information as significantly more credible than did print newspaper journalists.

Interestingly, questions have been raised about the credibility of online news or how newspaper readers evaluate the content of online media (Yoshiko, 2002; Brill, 2001; Ketterer, 1998; Lasica, 1998; Online News Association, 2002). These concerns are significant in that journalism is built on credibility (France, 1999). If the public does not believe or trust in the press, they are less likely to pay attention to it (Gaziano, 1988). On one hand, Johnson and Kaye (1998) suggested that lack of trust in information obtained from the Internet could keep it from becoming an important and influential news source. On the other hand, several researchers (Johnson & Kaye, 1998; Flangin et al., 200; Johnson et al., 2000; Schweiger, 2000) stated that Internet users judged online political information sources as more credible than traditional media counterparts and users trust more the content of the online media. This research agrees with this concept because it assures the importance of credibility, and works on the building requirements of public awareness and the ability to evaluate and distinguish between the media messages and public. Following these definitions, the author's definition on the concept of credibility's: *Credibility refers to "truthfulness, objectivity and realism in the media content"*.

2.4 Social network (SNSs)

The world has become a small computer screen , through the new communication platforms, the Internet, and social networks, all of which play major roles in many of our daily lives, information about current events is conveyed directly to us, bringing us closer to the public sphere. Moreover, the Internet and social networks have helped many people and countries during times of economic, health, and natural crisis, for instance: “Twitter and social network was a good supporter to collect donations to help disaster victims and help anyone who had no other way to communicate. Donation efforts on the site mobilized quickly aid the first natural disaster to strike since the social network sites took off; for instance, the American cross tweeted that it was pledging an initial \$200,000 to assist those affected, especially ‘Haiti’ ” (Twitter mobilizes efforts to raise aid for Haiti earthquake CNN- Jan. 13, 2010). In the next few pages the author will focus on the role of social networks in our lives in general and the political aspects of it in particular, using Egypt as a case study for the role of social networking in politics and democracy.

2.4.1 Social network; Definition, history, and development

While SNSs only started to emerge in the late 1990’s and have been primarily serving as an online networking tool (Boyd & Ellison, 2000), since that time social network sites (SNSs) have become very popular, especially in attracting young people to learn more about politics and changes that are taking place in their country. The users of social network have increased rapidly in recent decade. For instance, two million new users register on facebook every week (Sobel, 2007), the survey of Sonja Utz in 2009 showed that SNS provides an opportunity to reach individuals less interested in politics. In early research, scholars stated that social networks are important to connect people or build relations with strangers. As an example, Barker (1999) once said that social networks are individuals or groups linked by some common bond shared social status, similarity, shared functions, geographic or cultural connection, or specific need and interest. Wellman (1999) agreed with this and described contemporary community networks as narrow specialized relationships rather than broadly supportive ties, as well as sparsely knit, loosely bounded, and frequently changing; and as supportive and sociable although spatially dispersed rather than neighborhood-based (Voydanoff, 1999). So SNSs are very important tools for building relations in virtual places and real time between members of society.

Boyd and Ellison (2007) defined social network sites as “web-based services that allow individuals to:-

- (1) Construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system.

(2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection,

(3) View and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system. The nature and nomenclature of these connections may vary from site to site” (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). During 2005, online social network sites like MySpace and Facebook became common destinations for young people especially in the United States.

Throughout the country, “young people were logging in, creating elaborate profiles, publicly articulating their relationships with other participants, and writing extensive comments back and forth “(Boyd, 2008).

First launched in 2004 as a college network, Facebook quickly gained its popularity among the young people. In September 2006, Facebook was opened to everyone with a valid email address. Although in this way it is made harder to track the exact number of young users on Facebook, the general consensus is that the majority of active Facebook users are still young people. On the 1st of September, 2006, Facebook was primarily used by college students; and with Facebook, people were wandering around accepting others as ‘friends’, commenting on others’ pages, checking out what others posted, and otherwise participating in the networked environment. In addition, with Facebook any action or post is broadcasted to everyone in the appropriate member list, it is called “The Wall” (Boyd, p. 1). In addition, the appeal of MySpace, Facebook, and other SNSs is allowing users to “network” with each other. Subscribers also create self-presentation profiles and connect to profiles of existing friends and their friends’ friends; keeping in touch with friends and making new acquaintances among other subscribers are the heart and soul of any SNS (Monica & Raluca, 2009, p. 1).

Finally, SNSs were one of the first social variables recognized as “potentially alternative or complementary to socio-economic classes in sociolinguistics” (Watts, 2006; Britain & Matsumoto, 2005). Social network models have been applied to communities where the social class distribution of community speakers is uneven or problematic (e.g., small rural and non-industrialized communities) (Gal, 1979; Holmquist, 1985; Lippi-Green, 1989). Moreover, SNSs have been the hot spot of the web for the last few years; about 7 out of the top 10 most visited websites worldwide are SNSs, with MySpace and Facebook consistently rated the sixth and seventh most visited site since early 2007 (Alexa.com, 2008). Launched in 2004 states that, MySpace reached about 110 million active users by January 2008, with 60 million users in the United States alone, also launched in 2004, Facebook has about 65 millions active users worldwide as of February 2008 (Monica & Raluca, 2009, p.2), now over 500 million users, Facebook is now used by 1 in every 13 people on earth, with over 250 million of them (over 50%) who log in every day. The average user still has

about 130 friends, but that should expand in 2011. Over 700 Billion minutes a month are spent on Facebook, 20 million applications are installed per day and over 250 million people interact with Facebook from outside the official website on a monthly basis, across 2 million websites. Over 200 million people access Facebook via their mobile phone. 48.0 % of young people said they now get their news through Facebook. Meanwhile, in just 20 minutes on Facebook over 1 million links are shared, 2 million friend requests are accepted and almost 3 million messages are sent (¹).

2.4.2 Social network (SNSs); users, characteristics and features

Social networks allow individuals to be connected by one or more specific topic or field of education, financial exchange, common interest, political discourse, political party, belief, knowledge, or academic field. Social networks operate on many levels, from the level of members up to the level of nations or participating in society organization, and play a key role in solving the problems that face the public, how organizations are run, and the degree to which individuals succeed in achieving their goals. Consequently, a social network (SNSs) in its simplest form is a network map of specified topics, which helps individuals to contact and build their community through Internet websites.

The author will focus in this part on the political role of social networks which support societies to change their respective country's political system or call for change and reform the political process. Social networks not only help the public in the time of economic and health crisis, but also assist them in the time of political crisis to support human rights and call for change, especially in dictatorial governments, "while SNSs now are quickly gaining popularity among young people in helping them get connected with others, they are also transforming into the youths' major source of political information. Key features provided on Facebook, such as linking, wall-posting, or resource time to update on video-sharing websites such as YouTube, all these advantages through SNSs have created opportunities for young people to exchange their political views and become more politically active" (Ellison, Steinfiels & Lampe, 2007).

Since its introduction, social network sites (SNSs) such as MySpace, Facebook, Cyworld, Twitter, etc. have attracted millions of users, many of whom have integrated these sites into their daily practices. Social network sites help strangers to connect with each other, based on shared interests, political views, or activities. "Some sites cater to diverse audiences, while others attract people

¹ Source: <http://www.digitalbuzzblog.com/facebook-statistics-stats-facts-2011/>

based on common language or shared racial, sexual, religious, or nationality-based identities. Also these sites also vary in the extent to which they incorporate new information and communication tools, such as, mobile connectivity, blogging and photo/video-sharing” (Boyd & Ellison, 2007).

Increasingly, with their tremendous and increasing level of acceptance among a wide range of users and young people, social networks (SNSs) are becoming a focus of attention not only for researchers but also for the public and today’s youth. In addition, SNSs privacy elements have been recognized as an important topic in the Internet for some time, and technological developments in the area of privacy tools are ongoing, especially individual account privacy and privacy needs of their social networks. Besides, “online social networks (SNSs) such as Friendster, MySpace, Facebook, and all other types of social networks have experienced exponential growth in membership in recent years. These networks offer attractive means for the interaction and communication, but also raise privacy and security concerns” (Acquisti & Gross, 2006). The users of a social network are quite safe and their information stays inaccessible for strangers because most social network sites require approval for two people to be linked as ‘friends,’ thus achieving a level of safety through privacy elements (Boyd, 2008, p. 6). On the other hand, some scholars argue that although online social networks offer novel opportunities for interaction and safety among their users, they seem to attract non-users’ attention particularly because of the privacy concerns they raise (Acquisti & Gross, 2006).

For these advantages, social networks are gaining increasing importance for many people’s work and leisure time, as they allow for interaction independent of a fixed location (Preibusch, & Berendt, 2007). According to PEW Internet “Teens and Social network” 2009, found that 65% of online teens have a profile online. Moreover, girls, particularly older girls, more likely to use SNS than guys (86.0% of girls 15-17 have profile online, compared to 69.0% of boys 15-17) (Pew internet, April, 10, 2009).

It is important to note that the number of users of social networks is increasing day by day. According to National School Boards Association (July 2007), “online social networking is now deeply embedded in the lifestyles of young people; as an example, 9 to 17 year olds said that they spend almost as much time using social networking services and websites as they spend watching television. In average they spend about 9 hours a week on social networking activities, compared to about 10 hours a week watching TV. Overall, 96.0 % of students with online access report that they have used social networking technologies, such as chatting, text messaging, blogging and

participating in online communities, such as Facebook, MySpace, Twitter, etc.” (National School Boards Association, July 2007).

In addition, according to a survey conducted by Pew Internet & American Life Project in August of 2008, it was found that 33% of Internet users had a profile on a social networking site and that 31.0 % of these social network members had engaged in activities with a civic or political focus, such as joining political groups, or signing up as a “friend” of a candidate on a social networking site. Moreover, 15% of Internet users have gone online to add to the political discussion by posting comments on a website or blog about a political or social issue, posting pictures or video content online related to a political or social issue, or using their blog to explore political or social issues. As expected, those who use blogs or social networking sites politically are much more likely to be invested in other forms of civic and political activities compared to those who go online but do not post.

Taken together, social network sites have many advantages for society, especially young people, because “SNSs are based around profiles, a form of individual home page, which offers a description of each member. In addition to text, images, and video created by the member, the social network site profile also contains comments from other members, and a public list of the people that one identifies as friends within the network” (Amanda, 2007, p. 5). Also, one of the key advantages of SNSs is that they allow individuals to contact through public discourse, build friendships, contact between strangers, whether they know each other or not, because they will recognize each other from their profiles or account which include descriptors such as name, uploaded profile photo, e-mail address, job, and interests, as well as often containing personal details typical of those sites: demographic details (age, gender, location, etc.), tastes (interests, favorite bands, etc.), a photograph, and an open-ended description of who the person would like to meet.

Moreover, the individuals who have accounts or profiles on Facebook or Twitter or any type of SNS are visible to anyone if he/she, friend or not, can contact them to send them questions, links, comments, pictures, or news. Also “social network sites like MySpace allow users to choose between whether they want their profile to be publicly available or ‘for friends only’, but Facebook takes a different approach, by default its users who are part of the same network can view each other's profiles and all account information, unless a profile owner has decided to deny permission to those in their network” (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). Moreover, participants can also leave messages

or comments for friends or contacts who are offline at the moment. Additionally, social network sites allow users to share ideas, activities, events, and interests within their individual networks.

2.4. 3 Blogs

Social network, participatory media, collaborative media, and Web 2.0 tools may be among the descriptors that would be more inclusive than “blog” but share common elements. Blogs: one of the most important advantage within the last few years, a new generation of computer-mediated communication has emerged (Blood, 2002; Herring, Scheidt, Bonus, & Wright, 2005; Miller & Sheperd, 2004). Readers or audiences often have the opportunity to comment on any individual posting on other people blogs wall, or sharing information, descriptions of events, or other material such as graphics, photo, and video. “Weblogs, or "blogs," are frequently updated websites where content (text, pictures, sound files, etc.) is posted on a regular basis and displayed in reverse chronological order. Blog can also be used as a verb, meaning to maintain or add content to a blog (Rebecca, September 7, 2000). Additionally, “most blogs are interactive, allowing visitors to leave comments and even message each other via widgets on the blogs and it is this interactivity that distinguishes them from other static websites” (Mutum & Qing, 2010).

The term "weblog" was coined by John Barger on 17 December 1997. The short form, "blog," was coined by Peter Merholz, who jokingly broke the word weblog into the phrase we blog in the sidebar of his blog Peterme.com in April or May 1999 when he wrote this letter “Please stop using the term "web log" to refer to a chronologically-ordered frequently-updated website. The correct term is "weblog". "Blog" is not short for "web log", it is short for weblog. Shortly thereafter, Evan Williams at Pyra Labs used blog as both a noun and verb (to blog, meaning to edit one's weblog or to post to one's weblog) and devised the term "blogger" in connection with Pyra Labs' Blogger product, leading to the popularization of the terms (Wortham, 2007).

Many blogs also provide interactivity elements through commentary or news on a particular subject; others function as more personal. Additionally, blog combines text, images, audio video and links to other blogs, and other media related to its topic. The ability of readers to leave comments in an interactive format is an important part of many blogs. Most blogs are primarily textual, although some focus on art photographs, videos, music, for instance, MP3 or songs blogs and audio is another type of blogging, featuring very short posts.

Readers, friends or any organizations often have the option to comment of send fans on any individual posting, which is identified by a unique URL. Through such comments and references to

other online sources in the postings, as well as through links to favorite blogs in the sidebar (the "blogroll"), blogs form a clustered network of interconnected texts: the "blogosphere" (Schmidt, 2007). Since its introduction to the world, blogs are increasing and growing every day after a slow start, "blogging rapidly gained in popularity. Blog use spread during 1999 and the years, "between 50 and 85 million blogs as of June 2007" (Sifry, 2007), the majority of blogs are of the personal journal type, which deals with the bloggers' personal experiences and reflections; within this group, female and teenage bloggers are in the majority, while the journal blog may evoke images of the solitary diary (Hodkinson, 2006; Wei, 2004). The use of blogs in generating competitive advantage, and their application as knowledge management tools, is crucial to understanding the relevance of blogs for a range of professional organizations as well as community groups (Bruns & Jacobs, 2006, 2-3).

In recent years blogs started to play an important role in politics. Since 2002, blogs have gained increasing notice and coverage for their role in breaking, shaping, and spinning news stories. The Iraq war saw bloggers taking measured and passionate points (Dean, 2009). Increasingly, "the 2004 U.S. Presidential Election was the first Presidential Election in the United States in which blogging played an important role. Although the term weblog was coined in 1997, it was not until after 9/11 that blogs gained readership and influence in the U.S. The next major trend in political blogging was "warblogging": blogs centered on discussion of the invasion of Iraq by the U.S" (Adamic & Glance, 2005). Although official campaign blogs played a lesser role in the Bush and Kerry campaigns, with the Bush campaign's blog being criticized as little more than a place to post press releases, both parties launched innovative online campaigns to boost their grass-roots efforts (Boutin, 2004).

Interestingly, "the Obama campaign obviously does recognize the great potential lying in the digital media. Many media observers noticed his campaign's extensive application of the new media, which has greatly facilitated mobilizing people online to contribute their efforts offline in the old-fashioned ways, such as door knocking and precinct-walking across the entire country" (Dickinson, 2008; Drehle, 2008). Through the Internet and social network "Obama's campaign strategy has been succinctly dubbed as "19th century politics using 21st century tools" (Drehle, 2008). Moreover, "it was still primarily reliant on ground efforts to mobilize voters in the traditional sense. But running an election in the 21st century, the Internet is undoubtedly very powerful in connecting people, spreading information, and reinforcing beliefs. In the months before the election, there were over 2 million supporters of Obama on Facebook, Twitter, and blogs which was growing all the

time. A majority of his Facebook supporters are believed to be young people. A special feature of Facebook is the “wall post,” which is for others to talk to the owner of the page” (Jingsi Wu, 2008).

According to what is discussed above, the important role of social networks as a new medium in the age of the Internet and new media has increased and social networks help the public in general and young people in particular to contact with each other and build their own community. In addition, the public and more specifically the young people can use social network to engage not only in making friendships, but also to participate in political actions.

One of the most important features and advantages of using social networks is that the public can participate with others in political discussions by using their Facebook or Twitter account, personal blog, YouTube, or by posting pictures or videos about political or social issues, or any kind of content online related to political issues. This is exactly what happened during the Egyptian revolution, when young people used Internet and social networks to organize their demonstrations. More information concerning this particular event will be discussed below.



Figure 2.2 Social network forms

2.5 Internet Use

2.5.1 General trends

It took the radio 50 years to get a market of 50 million consumers; the TV took 13 years to do so until it became open to the general public, however, the Internet made it to the 50 million person audience mark in just 4 years! ⁽²⁾. During the last decade, the use of the Internet has grown at an astounding rate.

There has been a lot of empirical research into these matters with varied and inconclusive results, some studies showed the Internet to open up spaces for discussion, with participants seeking different viewpoints (Stromer, 2002, 2003), to introduce new participants to the discussion (Schneider, 1997), and participants to be generally more supportive of diverse and tolerant points of view than non-users (Robinson & Kestnbaum, 2002). Hussein, 1998 & Taya, 2000 indicated that "the access to information is the most important benefit for Internet users, including getting news, entertainment, spending spare time, and finally using the e-mail"(Hussein, 1998 & Taya, 2000).

The Internet has become a more attractive destination to access information in the United States. In spring 2008, 40.0 % have already "looked online for news or information about the (presidential) campaign." That's up from 31.0% in spring 2004 and 16.0% in spring 2000. And For those younger than 50, half were checking out political news on the Internet. The shares are even higher for college graduates 65.0% and those with household incomes of more than \$75, 000 per year 63.0%. On 2008, almost one in four Americans turned to the Internet for political content (Terry Jones, 2008, p.7).

This increase in Internet users not only happened in high income countries but also in low income countries. ⁽³⁾. Europe has more countries included in the highest category of Internet users than any other regions. More than 10.0% of the population is Internet users, including Spain, which reached 20.0% by June 2001 (Iglesias, 2001). Notable are the percentages of Iceland 59.8%, Portugal 59.5%, Norway 49.1%, and Sweden 45.6% (ITU, 2001). These countries have the highest proportion of Internet users in Europe and in the world.

The use of Internet among young people has increased. According to ARD/ZDF online study from 2007 showed that 96.0% of the 14 to 19 year-olds and 94.0% of 20 to 29 year-olds are Internet users, representing 63.0% of total population (Feierabend & Kutteroff, 2007). Germany is the first

² Source <http://www.ecommerce.gov/emerging.htm>

³ Source : <http://www.internetworldstats.com/stats.htm>

country in Western Europe from 2005 to 2011 in the rank of Internet users and penetration as a percent of population. The number of Internet users in Germany grew from 37.5 million people in 2005 (43.2% of the 2008 listed population of 80 million) to 42.7 million people in 2008 (65.8% of population). This number of Internet users is expected to increase in 2010 to 65.1 million users representing 79.1% of the population. As a general standard, Internet users are those who have used the Internet in the last 4 weeks ⁽⁴⁾. See Table 2.3.

Table (2.3) Germany internet users statistics from 1997 to 200.*⁵*

Internet users in Germany	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
In %	6.5	10.4	17.7	28.6	38.8	44.1	53.5	55.3	57.9	59.5	62.7	65.8
In Mio	4.1	6.6	11.2	18.3	24.8	28.3	34.4	35.7	37.5	38.6	40.8	42.7
Men%	10.0	15.7	23.9	36.6	48.3	53.0	62.6	64.2	67.5	67.3	68.9	72.4
Women %	3.3	5.6	11.7	21.3	30.1	36.0	45.2	47.3	49.1	52.4	56.9	59.6

Internet use is increasingly more prevalent among younger age groups within the Arab world, especially the 20 to 30 years old age group (Abdulla, 2007, p. 50). Despite the economic and political conditions Egypt was not far from the use of new media and the Internet. According to 2008 statistics, the total number of Internet users in Egypt was 8.1 million users out of 78.8 million population size. It was ranked the third country in the top 10 Internet user in Africa in 2007. In 2010

⁴ Source: <http://www.internetworldstats.com/stats.htm,2008>.

⁵ Source : (ARD-ZDF online studies 2008-2009) (<http://www.ard-zdf-onlinestudie.de/>, 11-06-2009).

and according to the statement of Egyptian Minister of Communications and Technology "the number of Internet users in Egypt at the end of 2009 became 13 million users" (6).

As noted, there is a shortage in reliable data on the income levels and educational backgrounds of Internet users in the Arab world, but it is safe to say that Internet use is highest among urban, middle and upper class groups, as suggested in studies covering Morocco (Baune, 2005), Kuwait (Wheeler, 2006), Egypt (Abdulla, 2007 in Sokol & Sisler, 2010, p. 3), and Saudi Arabia (Sait et al., 2007 in Sokol & Sisler, 2010, p. 3). Similar to Western societies, Internet use is a way of life for young, educated Arabs (Khalid, 2007). In the Arab world, the Internet is used for many reasons besides having access to news and gaining information. Instrumental sites such as search engines, social contacts through e-mail, blogs, and Facebook, as well as the discussion of religious taboo topics are just some of the uses; along with entertainment, sport news, and search for moral guidance and religious advice through religious websites (Bunt, 2009; Hofheinz, 2005; Abdulla, 2007 in Sokol & Sisler, 2010, p. 3).

The Internet is becoming available to vast segments of the wider public in the Arab world, rather than being restricted only to elites, intellectuals, and those in power. For example, Abdulla (2007, p. 48, Sokol & Sisler, 2010, p. 3) reported that there are currently a huge number of Internet cafes in Egypt, even in the most rural and poorest areas throughout the country. Wheeler (2008) mentioned in her study about the role of cybercafés in the lives of Egyptian women that the Internet increases the information access/professional development, expands or maintains social networks and social capital, and transforms social and political awareness.

2.5.2. Sociodemographic variables and internet use

Sociodemographic variables or Socio-Economic Position describes a person's position in society using criteria such as income, level of education, occupation, value of property owned and so on (Casswell, Pledger & Hooper, 2003). Sociodemographic variables such as gender, education, age, income, etc., are a key role and have strong effects on Internet use, citizens' political interest, and participation in politics. Socioeconomic status is divided into three fundamental categories, high, middle, and low, to describe the three types a family or an individual may fall into. For example, the well educated individuals are more likely than those less to participate in online activities such as emailing a government official, signing a petition or making a political contribution. Additionally, those who are lower on the socio-economic ladder are less likely to go online or to have broadband

⁶ Source: <http://www.shorouknews.com/ContentData.aspx?id=23592>

access at home, making impossible for them to engage in online political activities (Smith, Verba & Brady, 2009, p.1). In other words, there is a strong positive relationship between socio-economic status, and using the Internet and engagement in politics. Consequently, the participation gap between high levels of education and socio-economic individuals and low levels of education and socio-economic individuals will be apparent when comparing Egypt's and Germany's young people.

One of the most important things in this work is that when we compare between Egypt's and Germany's young people use of political news or participation in politics, we have to consider the increasing role of these socio-economic factors, in this case we deal with two different kinds of family and levels of income. In other words, poverty in Egypt "is defined in both absolute and relative terms. Absolute poverty refers to a state of lacking the most basic requirements of life, but relative poverty refers to lacking the resources required to participate in the lifestyle and consumption patterns enjoyed by others in society" (Krugman & Wells, 2009). 42.0% of Egyptian families live below the poverty level and 17 million Egyptians possess no education (i.e., are illiterate). These two socio-economic elements play an important role in Egyptian university student's' participation in politics. Besides, "age and gender affect university student's consumption of online political news. It has also been proved that young people with high levels of education have higher political knowledge and higher levels of civic engagement" (Bucy, 2003; Carpini & Keeter, 1996).

The economic level strongly affects young people use of Internet and computer; for instance to have a notebook, computer, DSL or router in your home in order to access Internet service depends on your ability to afford the associated costs. Genova and Greenberg (2006) indicated that, populations with higher socio-economic status, their use of Internet and political information are trending upwards at faster rates than lower status segments, and therefore the gap in knowledge between the societal divide is increasing rather than decreasing.

Roberts & Foehr (2008) examined how media use and media exposure varies with demographic factors such as age, race, ethnicity and household socio-economic status, and with psychosocial variables such as academic performance and personal adjustment. They note that media exposure begins early, increases until children begins school, drops off slightly, and then climbs again to peak at almost eight hours daily among eleven and twelve year-olds. Television and video exposure is particularly high amongst African American young people. Moreover, concerning the effects of age and Internet use and public media, the scholars state that older people might know more about polls

and current issues because they have more experience; and that educated people might pay more attention to both as aspects of campaigns and political events (Meyer & Potter, 1998).

Researchers highlighted the role of socio-economic factors in Internet use and the correlation between socio-economic with high or low use of the Internet. Especially online political news was positively related with political interest and participation through the vast amount of political information available on websites. For instance, political activity is highly correlated with high income, whether this activity takes place online or offline, compared with those who are lower on the socio-economic ladder and are less likely to go online or to have broadband access at home, making it impossible for them to engage in online political activity (Pew Internet & American Life Project, September 2009). Generally speaking, the scholars found that there is a strong positive relationship between socio-economic status and the amount of Internet use; in particular, there is a strong correlation between socio-economic status and political participation.

Speech researchers in this field have indicated that socio-economic status is another factor in assessing political knowledge, especially income; those with greater incomes are more engaged both civically and politically, and they are much more knowledgeable about political issues than other groups with low income statuses (Carpini & Keeter, 1996, p. 215; Schlozman et al., 1999, p. 433). Cao (2008) found positive relationships with education: young people with high degree of education had more political knowledge and participation than those with low level of education. In general, the population with the higher socioeconomic status tends to receive political information at a faster rate than lower status segments, so that the gap in knowledge between them tends to increase rather than to decrease (Genova & Greenberg, 2006). Additionally, “socioeconomic factors (SES) are the crucial determinant in identifying citizens who are more likely to be knowledgeable about public affairs and politics”, this means that “the information – rich will become richer” (Genova & Greenberg, 1979, p.79), and this maybe the evidence of the gap between Egyptians and Germany’s university student’s knowledge of politics.

Regarding the gender issue, the Internet allows the expression and vocalization of long-silenced female voices in the Arab world, as shown for example by the study of Internet bulletin boards in Saudi Arabia by Samin (2008). Similarly, the findings of El-Nawawy and Khamis’ (2009) study on Islamic websites revealed that women are increasingly becoming active participants in the virtual public field by posting in both general as well as gender-restricted (women’s only) websites. More recent research has recognized the influence of the socio-economic gap on the consumption of news. Genova and Greenberg (2006) focused on interests in news and the knowledge gap and they

examined public knowledge about current print-media news events; their analysis found that socio-economic factors are crucial determinant in identifying citizens who are more likely to be knowledgeable about political affairs news events. Genova & Bradley (2006) once stated: “as the infusion of mass media information into a social system increases, segments of the population with higher socioeconomic status tend to acquire this information at a faster rate than lower status segments, so that the gap in knowledge between them tends to increase rather than decrease” (p. 79).

Furthermore, gender influences the amount of Internet use; gender roles are changing from one community to another according to the societal customs and traditions. For example, in some Arabic and Islamic countries women are not allowed to use Facebook, chat rooms, or any other types of social network to connect with strangers; this also affects the amount of Internet use and social networks (SNSs) among women comparing with men. The author below indicates the role of gender as one of socio-economic factors that affects Internet use in general and online political news in particular.

Scholars state that men are more likely than women to gather political information from newspapers, news magazines, political television, radio talk shows, and the Internet, while women are more likely to obtain political information from local television news and morning television shows (Mira, 2008). In terms of hiding one's gender on the Internet, the differences between genders were even more pronounced. Almost 10.0% less males 8.8% than females 18.2% responded that they hide their gender, 5.0 % less males 24.9% than females 29.9% said they sometimes hide their gender, and about 10.0% more males 57.5% than females 47.6% stated that they do not hide their gender. “not applicable” was checked by 8.8% of male and 4.3% of female students (Abdulla, 2007).

Additionally, the higher an individual's income, the more likely he or she is to access the Internet. In Germany, as ARD-ZDF online reports: Men were more likely to use and access the Internet than women, and the percentage was 72.4% for men and 59.6% for women. Also young people aged 20-29 years jumped to the first rank among Internet users 94.8% (ZDF online, Jun, 2009).

Similar to Western societies, Internet use is a way of life for young and educated Arabs (Khalid, 2007 in Sokol & Sisler, 2010, p. 3) in Egypt and according to the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, young people aged 15-29 years totaled 35.5 million and made up 33.3%

of the total population in 2008. The gender ratio among Egyptian young people is 103 males per 100 females.

Moreover, these factors affect how and why young people use the Internet, and the amount of use. These factors may seem more influential in Egypt than in Germany; the low level of income and high percentage of illiteracy causes the decreasing number of Internet users in Egypt comparing with Germany. . Also the author speculates that these factors will be effective in political awareness in the comparison between university student's in Germany and Egypt.

As has been discussed, socioeconomic factors are very important and have deep affect in citizens political awareness, also this factor effect in how and why young people use the Internet, and the amount of use. These factors may seem more influential in Egypt more than Germany" the low level of income and high percentage of illiteracy " caused the decreasing number of Internet user in Egypt comparing with Germany.

2.6. Social network and political transformation in Egypt

The recent political events in Egypt, Libya, Yemen, and Tunisia reflect the key role of social networks and online political news in supporting citizens with their self-determination and call for change towards democracy and freedom. The protestors were able to use the Internet, Facebook, and YouTube to organize rallies with the help of social network sites and to send video files to international media documenting the arresting and killing of demonstrators. In the following pages the author will focus on Egypt as a case study for two main reasons: Firstly, it is the homeland of the author, Secondly, the young people in Egypt used social networks as a pivotal method towards changing their country's political system.

No one denies the role social networks played as an effective tool in the Egyptian revolution. When Egyptian young people used social network to organize and announce their demonstrations through it and were able to change the national political system that led President Mubarak and his government to step down. "The Egyptian government noticed this and therefore it cut off 88.0% of the major Internet service providers from inside and outside the country on Thursday 28th of January 2011" (The Guardian, Jan 28, 2011). Young people and activists had been using social networks in order to communicate and organize the demonstrations through blogger pages and Facebook to inform people where and when protestors were gathering. Moreover, "the Egyptian government prevented the access not only to the Internet websites, but also to social-networking sites like Twitter and Facebook, as well as BlackBerry service and some international television

channels such as Aljazeera TV. Nevertheless, on the 25th of January 2011 millions of Egyptians poured into the streets of Cairo starting to protest against the economic policies, government corruption, and called for an end of the nearly 30 year rule of President Hosni Mubarak” (The New York Times, March 12, 2011).

The Egyptian government not only stopped Facebook service, but also the Twitter website had been cut off in an apparent move to thwart protesters using the social network in the anti-Mubarak campaign. The “twitter team said that its service remained blocked but some people were using proxy servers to successfully send ‘tweets’” (Doherty, Jan. 27, 2011). Moreover, US State Department spokesman PJ Crowley said in a tweet (message) on Twitter stated: "we are concerned that communications services, including the Internet, social network and even this tweet are being blocked in Egypt" (Silicon republic, Jan. 28, 2011). All these procedures against social networks and the Internet were meant to thwart demonstrators and repress the revolution.

So what exactly makes SNSs, especially Twitter and Facebook, the medium of the moment? They are free, highly mobile, very personal and almost instantaneous. They are also built to spread, and fast. Twitters like to append notes called hash-tags (#) to their tweet. Moreover, Twitter is promiscuous by nature: tweets go out over two networks, the Internet and SMS, the network that cell phones use for text messages, and they can be received and read on practically anything with a screen and a network connection (Grossman, 2009).

In addition, Twitter is practically ideal for a mass protest movement, both very easy for the average citizen to use and very hard for any central authority to control. The same might be true for e-mail and Facebook, but those media are not public. They do not broadcast as Twitter does. Similar steps were taken in Iran on June 13, 2009 when protests started to escalate; the Iranian government moved to suppress dissent both on- and off-line, and the Twitters responded with tweets from those unwilling to accept those oppressive limitations, both in English and in Persian. While the front pages of Iranian newspapers were full of blank space where censors had white-ousted news stories, Twitter was delivering information from street level, in real time (Time News, June 17, 2009). This happened during Iran’s recent elections, as much talk as there is about Twitter and other social network supplanting the likes of CNN in covering breaking news, they are really another source rather than a replacement and Twitter users know that as well as anyone else. Thus, they want and demand big news organizations to step up, nimbly and responsively, to cover fast-changing events like this (CNN, June 7, 2009). Also, the people participating and observing Iranian demonstrations uploaded videos to YouTube which international channels picked up and broadcasted further.

Moreover, several Egyptian newspapers quoted that the Egyptian government, in order to prevent the demonstrators from contacting each other, reportedly disrupted mobile phone networks. In addition to this move, the Egyptian government cut off mobile phone coverage and Internet services and sent columns of riot police trucks into Cairo in a bid to thwart thousands of activists due to join anti-regime protests during afternoon prayers. Thus the Egyptian government had cut off every communication tool used by protest organizers (El Ahram Youm⁷, El Masriun). Moreover, “every Egyptian provider, every business, bank, Internet cafe, website, school, embassy, and government office that relied on the big four Egyptian ISPs for their Internet connectivity was cut off from the rest of the world.” (PCmag, 28th of January, 2011⁽⁷⁾) and customers of link Egypt, Vodafone Mobinil, Telecom Egypt, UP-DATA, and Etisalat Misr Cell saw all phone text messaging cut off, as well as their access to the Internet.

All international media were focused on the events in Egypt and gave the Egyptian revolution ample coverage; The Telegraph newspaper on 13th of February 2011 quoted that “Egypt's five primary Internet providers – Link Egypt, Vodafone – Raya, Telecom Egypt and Etisalat Misr –have stopped moving data in and out of the country. Also, cell phone, text and Blackberry Messenger services were also cut off in what appeared to be a move by authorities to disrupt the organization of demonstrations”⁽⁸⁾.

On the 13th of April 2011, Egypt's prosecutor general ordered the detention of former President Hosni Mubarak, ahead of an investigation into corruption and abuse allegations. Additionally, his sons Alaa and Gamal were also detained amid allegations of corruption and violence. Moreover, he and his sons have been banned from leaving the country and their assets have been frozen. His two sons and a growing number of ministers and officials from his ruling era are facing investigation,⁽⁹⁾ all Arabic and world media cited this event.

After all these events, Egypt now changed to a more democratic political environment through a new constitution, free parliament elections, and free elections to choose a new president with more democratic and fair procedures, unlike the last two presidential elections. Interestingly, one of the most political benefits of Egyptian revolutions towards democracy environmental that the dissolution of the NDP (National Democratic Party) “has been a key demand of the protesters who drove him from power, its' offices was among the buildings targeted during the uprising. An

⁷ Source: <http://www.pcmag.com>

⁸ Source: Source <http://www.bbc.co.uk>, Egyptian national TV <http://www.egyptv.net>

⁹ Source:BBC.com

Egyptian court has ordered that the former ruling party of ousted President Hosni Mubarak should be dissolved. On 16th of April 2011, BBC News and National TV in Egypt have quoted that all assets of the National Democratic Party will be seized and handed to the government, the supreme administrative court ruled” (BBC News & National Egyptian TV, 16th of April 2011). The NDP had dominated the country's politics since it was set up by Mubarak's predecessor, Anwar Sadat, in 1978. This means, the closing of the door against a monopoly of politics by one political party, and a new era of multiple parties can participate in politics.

Egyptian citizens will never forget the 25th of January 2011; it will be always a remarkable day in their history. Thousands of people came together to rise up peacefully against a dictatorship led by President “Mubarak who has led Egypt since 1981. Everyone in 1981 trusted him to lead the country after serving in the military for a long period and reaching promotion level of Egyptian Air Chief Marshal. During his 30 years of power he has served the Egyptian people well up, he had strengthened the economy until recent years, and he made himself very rich in the process off the backs of the Egyptian people. 24 million of the 78 million people survive on \$2 a day and the next level of society not much more than that. The Egyptian people rose up for better” (¹⁰). After that, former Egyptian President Hosni Mubarak, who was forced to step down by a popular uprising in 14 February 2011 and number of his former government members, is due to appear in court, charged with corruption and ordering the killing of protesters. The 83yearold has been held under arrest at a hospital in the Red Sea resort of Sharm el-Sheikh during his trial. No one could have predicted that the mass demonstrations which erupted earlier this year would prove to be disastrous for the Mubarak regime. Now he has been toppled and will stand trial along with others who were equally complicit in crimes against the Egyptian people. (¹¹).

2.7 Conclusion

Nowadays, if you have any kind of computer that is connected to Internet then you can while, sitting at home and using the Internet , meet many people and have many friends not only from your country but worldwide as well. Young people use this kind of medium to get information from all kinds of topics or specific information about their study courses, or they use it to know what is happening in their respective countries. Definitely, there are differences among young people concerning their online activities, some of them are interested in online or offline chatting; others use it for gathering political news, and other use it for shopping, downloading music or video and so

¹⁰ Source http://www.bukisa.com/articles/453581_egyptian-protest-25th-january-30th-january-week-one

¹¹ Source: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-africa-14381303>

on. Whatever you are looking for, you will find it through the Internet. Moreover, young people are more familiar with using these kinds of new tools of media like blogs, social networks, or voice-chat than any other age group in the society. All this make it easier for young people to be more politically aware of what is going on in their country and to develop their political awareness.

If you want to search for any specific information with more details that might be not be available or hard to find through typical sources of information or national traditional media which under censorship in dictatorship countries is common, then the internet is the most efficient and effective way to do so. In addition, sending emails, making telephone call or video conferences, searching for information about current political issues and many other services on the internet are free of cost and takes really a short time. Consequently, the Internet has changed our lives enormously; there is no doubt about that. “The virtual world offers new opportunities for political expression and communication. Why political discussion has migrated to the Internet is obvious. In almost every Arab country, a tight state grip on the media, books and films severely limits freedom of expression. But what impact is this free-wheeling political discussion and debate in digital space having on real life politics? How is the Internet changing actual politics?”(12).

Increasingly, social networking is a very strong political tool and can be a mighty weapon in changing the opinions and influence the public. The pro-democracy movement in North Africa, the Middle East and everyday’s stories coming out of Tunisia, then Egypt, and now Syria, Jordan, and almost all other parts of the Arab World are strong evidence of new media role in political transformation in Arabic countries in 2011, which are called now “the Arabic spring revolutions”. It took the Egyptians 18 days to step down Mubarak and his government, which had ruled the country for more than 29 years. The author mentioned during this chapter, the young people have revealed an important new political phenomenon in Egypt: political mobilization by young, second generation Internet user via blogs, Youtube, and Facebook. The World Wide Web has allowed political minded people of Egypt to converse about politics within their country and influence the opinion of the people who have yet to be swayed by one perception or another. Not only Egyptian influenced by media outlets who reported the news, but also by other non traditional media conversing on the current political climate through internet and social networking sites and forms.

¹² Source: <http://nawaat.org/portail/2009/11/23/arab-facebook-the-internet%E2%80%99s-role-in-politics-in-the-middle-east/>

Chapter 3 political awareness and similar constructs

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the political awareness concept and similar constructs, starting with definitions of the different political concepts such as political awareness, cognitions, interest, efficacy, knowledge, discourse, and participation. Moreover, the author elaborates on the relationship between using media in general and online political news in particular with these political concepts. Third, this chapter includes some information about youth voting. Finally, this chapter concludes with a common definition of political awareness and how to measure it, as well as the role of media in improving political awareness, especially the effects of online political news on political awareness. I mentioned in this part of my work to investigate the relationship among these political variables to answer the question who related to other? In other hand to indicate the relationship between the use of media and all these political variables?, or the use of political news on the Internet is positively related to these political variables or not?.

The concept of “political awareness” is a highly controversial concept among scholars that has not been given its fair amount of attention in scholarly researches. Few studies, whether international or Arabic, can be found discussing and studying this concept. In addition, the researcher noticed that these studies suffered not only from an unclear definition of political awareness, but also had different conceptual and methodological methods in measuring it. For instance, some studies referred to it as “political participation”, while other studies used political knowledge or political interest questions to measure it. The author of this study concludes with a comprehensive definition of political awareness. Furthermore, the researcher measured this concept by asking the respondents an index of questions covering all the political aspects of political knowledge, participation, discussion, and interest. Beyond that, this study distinguishes between the concept of political awareness from other political concepts, how they are measured, and their relation to media. As we will see in the following pages, the author tries to clarify the differences between each of these political concepts that related at the end to the concept of political awareness, and finally in this chapter, the author introduces his own definition and measuring tool concerning the concept of political awareness.

3.2. Political Cognitions

Cognition is the scientific term for "the process of thought". Use of the term varies in different disciplines; for example in psychology and cognitive science, it usually refers to an information processing view of an individual's psychological functions. Other interpretations of the meaning of cognition link it to the development of concepts: individual minds, groups, and organizations. In addition, cognitions are the thoughts that we have on a daily basis such as "I wonder what the weather is going to be like today?" or "I like the shirt she is wearing" (Kelly, 2009).

Political cognitions as a concept refers to "the ability of human beings to acquire and possess political knowledge through perception, reasoning, or intuition. Cognitions about politics come mainly from information supplied by political stories, political reports, and highlighting certain issues or framing it with details in the mass media. Television, Newspapers, Magazines, and the Internet" (Graber & Holyk, 2008).

The study of political cognition largely deals with the mental representations people share as political actors. Our knowledge and opinions about politicians, parties, or presidents are largely acquired, changed, or confirmed by various forms of text and talk during our socialization (Merelman, 1986). Moreover, the study of political cognition focuses on various aspects of political information processing. It essentially deals with the acquisition, uses, and structures of mental representations about political situations, events, actors, and groups. Typical topics of political cognition research include the following: the organization of political beliefs, the perception of political candidates, political judgment and decision making, stereotypes, prejudices and other socio-political attitudes, political group identity, public opinion, impression formation, and many other topics that deal with memory representations and the mental processes involved in political understanding and interaction (for details, see, e.g., Hermann 1986; Iyengar and McGuire 1993; Lau and Sears 1986; Lodge and McGraw 1995). In addition, the study of political cognition largely deals with the mental representations people share as political actors, formal education, media use, and conversation. Thus, political information processing often is a form of discourse processing, also because much political action and participation is accomplished by discourse and communication.

At the end, the concept of political cognitions in my personal opinion is the ability of individuals to understand and to be aware of their community problems, understand its current issues, and predict the future of these issues through intuition and cognitions. Generally or logically the concept of political cognations come before political participation or political efficacy because both of political

participation and efficacy are behavior; so according to the logical order, cognitions related to participation. Sometimes political participation is not necessarily the next step after cognitions or knowledge, as participation also can happen without understanding so much about political information. As an example, in 2011 millions of Egyptian people from all Egyptian cities encamped on streets in huge demonstrations against Mubarak even though all these individuals did not share the same level of cognitions or knowledge about politics, with many citizens saying it was the first time they had participated or become involved in such political action.

3.3 Political interest

The term of political interest refers to the citizen's willingness to pay attention to political phenomena at the possible expense of other topics. When we say someone is very interested in politics, we mean that he spends considerable time focusing on politically oriented tasks or materials, and when we describe someone as a totally uninterested, we mean that he devotes all of his time and energy to non-political pursuits (Lupia & Philopt, 2005, p.1122).

In the current study the author cares about political interest because it corresponds and associated with other political variables. Verba, Schlozman, and Brady, for example, argue that "citizens who are interested in politics - who follow politics, who care about what happens, who are concerned with wins and losses- are more likely to be politically active"(Verba, Schlozman & Brady, 1995, p.345). Delli Carpini & Keeter found that "Reported interest...in politics was a significant predictor of nearly every type of political knowledge we examined" (Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1995, p. 175). Furthermore, "some people are more politically interested than others, but political scientists do not know how stable these differences are and why they accrue. Why this is so remains largely unclear, because political scientists have devoted little attention to studying the development of political interest" (Markus, Prior, 2009, p.1).

On the contrary, in this study, which digs deeper to indicate the development of many political variables' which leads us to describe someone that he or she is politically aware? It is an important question because "political interest is typically the most powerful predictor of political behavior that makes democracy. Additionally, politically interested people are more knowledgeable about politics, more likely to vote, and more likely to participate in politics than others (see e.g., Delli Carpini & Keeter 1996; Verba, Schlozman & Brady 1995; Powell 1986; Luskin 1990). They are also more likely to be mobilized, and attempts to encourage political participation often have significantly effects on individual who are politically interested (Verba, Schlozman & Brady, 1999; Finkel, 2002). Consequently; to understand the role of political interest and its linkage with other

political variables' is becoming more important, moreover the effects of online political news on promoting political interest and many political variables', which also related to young people political awareness.

3.4. Political knowledge

Much of the research on political knowledge addresses one of two main questions: "Is the public sufficiently politically knowledgeable to sustain an effective democracy? and, what role does communication play in the creation and maintenance of informed citizenry?" (Eveland, Hively; & Hutchense, 2008). In the following I will focus on the definition of political knowledge as well as the effect of media on building knowledge about political issues, followed by the operationalizing of political knowledge.

Various terms have been used to address or define the concept of political knowledge. For instance, the terms political sophistication or political discourse often includes political information, knowledge about political issues and political matters. On the one hand, some studies incorporate political interest, political participation, discussion, and the role of media news, traditional or new media use. Additionally, the definitions of political sophistication are very close to political knowledge. However, on the other hand, a number of scholars have noted that, at its core, political sophistication is about knowledge of the political realm. In this case, political sophistication is a concept very closely correlated with political knowledge. In the following pages the researcher will present the definitions of political knowledge beside his definition about this concept.

Political knowledge is "the range of factual information about politics that is stored in long term memory or interpersonal discussion about politics." (Carpini & Keeter, 1996, p.10) Political knowledge can be gained through formal education, interpersonal discussion about politics, and new and traditional news media such as newspapers reading and education level, etc.

In fact, several studies and researchers deal with political knowledge as divided into two components. Some researchers refer to "differentiation" – the number of political facts or concepts held by an individual – and "integration" – the ability to connect and relate these facts or concepts – as the two components of political knowledge or thinking. Others make a very similar distinction between factual knowledge and structural knowledge (Carpini & Keeter, 1996).

- 1- "Factual political knowledge: refers to the ability to remember or recognize bits of information that can be determined by observers to be true or false" (Carpini & Keeter,

1996, p. 11; Eveland; Hively & Hutchense, 2008). Factual political knowledge is probably the most commonly investigated aspect of political knowledge, for instance: knowledge of the names, officials, and their position in the political system, knowledge of political process, candidates, and issue position.

- 2- The second dimension of political knowledge is “structural knowledge” and it refers to the way in which factual information is organized by an individual, for instance, political ideologies are one way in which attitudes are structured. Various terms have been employed to refer to political knowledge structures, including schemas, ideologies, and knowledge structure density. What each of these terms shares is the notion that it is not merely a group of disconnected facts about politics that make up political knowledge. Instead, the manner in which facts are organized in memory, and the ways in which individuals see connections between the facts, can be vitally important” (Carpini & Keeter, 1996 p. 11; Eveland; Hively & Hutchense, 2008).

Also, there is considerable debate regarding the level of political knowledge of the general public and what level of knowledge is necessary for the effective practice of democracy; research on factual knowledge suggests that levels of political knowledge in the US have been low and stable since the mid-twentieth century. Comparative work suggests that levels of foreign affairs knowledge differ by country, with people from North America being relatively less informed than their European counterparts (Bennett et al.1996).

34.1. Measuring of political knowledge

Several studies conversely argued that political knowledge is an amorphous concept that has been operationalized differently in various studies ranging from information in politics or political party to candidates’ names and their stances on issue, or accurate or sufficient information that can facilitate one’s political decision making such as voting (Lee & Wei, 2009; Pinkleton, 1999). Moreover, political knowledge is an important step before participation; political knowledge is traditionally considered as the main mediator between reception of information and political actions. “Knowing basic facts about politics helps individuals at least to orient themselves in the political world, to connect issues with offices and public officials with issues” (Popkin, 1999, in Sotirovic & McLeod, 2001, p. 275) and most importantly to formulate their political preferences (Zaller, 1992).

Verba, Schlozman, and Brady (1995) indicated that political knowledge, measured by asking respondents the names of public officials and by testing their knowledge of government and politics, is a significant predictor of time based political activity (e.g. working as a volunteer for a political candidate, contacting government officials), voting, and political discussion. Research also suggests that political information may be both the cause and the result of political activity (Carpini & Keeter, 1996; Junn, 1991; Leighley, 1991 in Mira Sotirovic & McLeod, 2001, p. 276).

To measure political knowledge in the recent study, survey participants were asked the following questions: “Who is the current Prime Minister/counsellor in your country?” and “How many members of Parliament/Federal Parliament are there in your country?” in order to know if he or she gives the correct answer. The respondents were also asked questions about some national and international political elites who have been in the news recently and whether they know them or not, for instance: Barack Obama, Hillary Clinton, and so on. Moreover, the participants were asked an open question about their general political knowledge of events of the previous year: “From your point of view, what was the most important political issue that concerned national/international public opinion in 2009?”

3.4.2 Media use and political knowledge

It is very important to understand how communication and media are related to political knowledge and some other political concepts, for instance some studies indicated the limited effects of Internet use on political knowledge, political efficacy, and political participation. The Internet is used heavily in the campaign environment (Hardy & Scheufele, 2005; Norris, 1999; Scheufele & Nisbet, 2002). Moreover, the size of the discussion network is positively related to political knowledge (Eveland Jr. & Hively, 2008). Also young people use the Internet far more than any other generation and they are more comfortable with new technology and new media tools (Quentin, 2007). Others indicated that news media plays an important role in political socialization (Chaffee, Nass, & Yang, 1990), which refers broadly to “all political learning (Greenstein, 1986, p. 551). The political knowledge that voters acquire from the media is subject to political information available to them in the media (Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1996). Many researches in political communication have examined the effect of news media use and political knowledge (e.g., Chaffee & Schleuder, 1986; Robinson & levy, 1986; Norris, 2000; Sotirovic & McLeod, 2004). Findings support the role of media in learning and knowledge about politics (Perloff, 1998; Weaver, 1996, in Ran Wei & Ven Lo, 2008). Media exposure associates with higher knowledge and information in public and political affairs (Chaffee & Tims, 1982; Chaffee & Schleuder, 1986; Dhavan, & Kwak, 2005).

Moreover; some studies found significant differences that have been detected in the effects of electronic versus print media (Simon & Merrill, 1997). Specifically, newspaper readers tend to obtain and retain more political information, and can better discriminate among issues in comparison with television viewers (Klapper, 1970; Clarke & Fredin, 1978; Tewksbury & Althaus, 2000). Television viewers, by contrast, are more likely to make voting decisions based on candidate images and personal qualities portrayed in television (Graber, 1976). Although television tends to have a greater impact on audiences' knowledge in current events, newspapers are found to contribute to readers' fundamental political knowledge (Garamond & Atkin, 1986).

Generally, past studies have repeatedly demonstrated that television news contributes little or nothing to the public's knowledge of public affairs (Becker and Whitney 1980; Patterson and McClure 1976; Robinson & Levy 1986). However, several recent studies have shown that television news correlates significantly and positively with public affairs knowledge under certain circumstances and for certain topics (Bennett et al. 1996; Chaffee et al. 1994; Chaffee & Frank 1996; Norris & Sanders 2003) and television news tends to make a significant contribution to adolescents' knowledge about public affairs, for example adolescents' knowledge about the Gulf Wars (Ven-Hwei Lo & Chang 2006; Chaffee & Tims 1982; Sotirovic & McLeod 2004; Tan & Vaughn 1976).

Several studies have tested the role of television news and political knowledge, for instance, Chaffee & Kanihan (1997). Norris (1996) found that political participation is affected by the content that people watch on television as well as by the amount of television viewing. Also examined was the role of newspapers, television, and the Internet in producing a gap between social classes in political knowledge. Researchers (Eveland & Scheufele, 2000; Kwak, Testing the Knowledge Gap, 1999) argue that news media may not only increase but also decrease the gap, depending upon the types of news media used (e.g., newspapers vs. television news). In particular, the gap narrowing or gap widening effect of the Internet has been at the center of controversy among researchers. Does the Internet reduce the gap by making political information more available, accessible, and easier to follow particularly among uneducated lower classes (Anderson, Bikson, & Mitchell, 1995; Dyson, 1997; Gates, 1995).

Also media play an important role in conveying or mobilizing as a source of information from which citizens know about public affairs. This informational function is important in a number of respects, most importantly the strong link between levels of political knowledge and participation in various civic activities and public affairs (Rosenstone & Hansen, 1993; Schlozman & Brady, 1995).

Also research has shown that online news use is positively related to political knowledge. Giving an example, “younger individuals have generally been found to have lower levels of political knowledge, but young individuals who use the Internet for political purposes have been found to have higher levels of political knowledge than their non-Internet-using counterparts” (Eveland & Hutchense, 2008). Others found positive association between political participation and political knowledge (Xiao Cao, 2008).

3.5. Political efficacy

3.5.1 Definition

The political efficacy concept is strongly related to political participation, especially epistemic political efficacy, which is primarily related to information seeking and opinion formation or searching for political information about political issues. “The concept of political efficacy developed separately from self efficacy theory but can and should be grounded in it” (Bandura, 1982; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). In other words, people do not just try to do what they want to do, but what they want to do and believe they can succeed at (Pingree, 2011). Self-efficacy should not be measured as a general construct unrelated to a particular type of task because such a construct would be indistinguishable from self-esteem (Brockner, 1988; Pingree, 2011, p. 26). In the case of political efficacy, the behaviors and motivations associated with political action are distinct (at least conceptually) from those associated with political opinion formation and information seeking, and therefore, political efficacy may have a previously unmeasured epistemic counterpart. Self-efficacy theory is also useful for understanding how EPE is constructed over time (Pingree, 2011, p. 26). Like any efficacy construct, the primary determinant is ‘enactive mastery’, which is an accumulation of personal successes or failures at the task, with greater weight given to more recent ones (Bandura, 1982; Pingree, 2011).

Political efficiency is “the feeling that political and social change is possible, and that individual citizens can play a part in bringing about this change” (Campbell & Miller 1954 in Kenski and Stroud, 2006, p. 174). According to May (2008), “political efficacy refers generally to citizens’ beliefs in their ability to influence in the political system” (Patricia May, 2008, p. 3709). Zimmerman (1989) defined the political efficacy concept as “the belief that one has the skills to influence the political system” (Zimmerman, 1989, p. 554). Moreover, political efficacy refers to a feeling of confidence in one’s ability to participate effectively in the democratic process (Easton & Dennis, 1967; Niemi, Craig, & Mattei, 1991; Morrell, 2003).

Political efficacy also refers to the feeling that political actions taken by individuals can have an impact on the political process in their countries (May, 2008, p. 3709). Active individuals believe they can influence the political system through their political activity in the community, such as voting in elections and campaigning to achieve social changes.

Generally, political efficacy refers to the citizen's belief of his/her ability and influence on the participation of shaping their country's political system through their political activities. Several scholars have noted that political efficacy appears to be made of two different constructions or two types of political efficacy: a personal sense of efficacy, commonly known as internal efficacy, and a more system oriented sense of efficacy, known as external efficacy.

❖ **External political efficacy.**

External political efficacy “refers to beliefs about the responsiveness of government authorities and institutions to citizen demands” (Kenski & Stround, 2006) or the beliefs that the political system is democratic and will respond to actions taken by its citizens (May, 2008)

❖ **Internal political efficacy.**

Internal political efficacy refers to beliefs about one's competence to understand and participate effectively in politics (Balch, 1974; Convers, 1972; Niemi, Craig & Matter, 1991, p. 1407-1408). The second type of political efficacy is closely related to political participation because it refers to participation in politics; but political participation has many forms or activities in politics as will be shown below.

The socio economic factors greatly affects political efficacy, especially the internal efficacy; previous studies have shown that the internal efficacy more strongly correlated with education, media exposure, talking about politics with others, political interest, participation, and knowledge more than external efficacy (Kenski & Stround, 2006, p. 189). Moreover, internal efficacy is positively associated with education and hence political participation (Morrell, 2003). The Internet could enhance external political efficacy because it enables citizens to interact with public officials and to hold them accountable and gives individuals easy access to information about politics (Cornfield, 2003).

Some research suggests that those who use the Internet for information, especially political information, exhibit higher levels of political efficacy, knowledge, and participation (Johnson & Kaye, 2003; Kenski & Stround, 2006) and the use of political news on the Internet promotes political

interest and feelings of trust and efficacy; moreover, it makes individuals more likely to participate in campaigns and politics (Wang, 2007, p. 381). Others have suggested that the correlation between knowledge and newspapers might be a product of demographic variables or a function of the level to which people follow politics (John et al., 2002; Mondak, 1995).

3.5.2. Measuring of political efficacy

Political efficacy is conceptualized as related to political participation; its measures almost always include items with a strong epistemic dimension (e.g., “I feel I have a pretty good in politics (Pingree, 2011, p. 26). The Aauthor of this study is also interested to know how previous studies measured political efficacy; for instance, on the one hand some studies measured political efficacy using Likert scale items to measure political efficacy in its components through the asking of particular statements: “I consider myself to be well qualified to participate in politics; I feel that I have a pretty good understanding of the important political issues facing our country; I feel that I could serve as well in public office as most other people; I think that I am better informed about politics and government than most people; Sometimes politics and government seems to be so complicated that a person like me can’t really understand what is going on; People like me do not have any opinion about what the government does; I don’t think public officials care much what people like me think .

On the other hand, scholars measured political efficacy through three elements:

(1) Epistemic political efficacy (EPE) was measured using three items: “I feel confident that I can find the truth about political issues,” “if I wanted to, I could figure out the facts behind most political disputes;”

(2) In addition, they measured *Internal political efficacy* by asking individuals questions such as “I feel that I could do a good job influencing public officials” and “to the extent that citizens can influence politics, my efforts to do so would be more effective than the average person.” In addition to these “I consider myself well qualified to participate in politics” and “I feel that I could do as good a job in public office as most other people.”

(3) *External political efficacy* was measured with four items: “People like me don’t have any say about what the government does” (reverse coded), “I don’t think public officials care much what people like me think” (reverse coded), “Ordinary people can influence the government,” and “Public officials care what ordinary people think” (Pingree, 2011, p. 32).

3.6. Political Participation

There is a strong linkage between political participation and political knowledge, but we can't make sure about which one comes first, but the current study can give indications about who related to other; although at the minimum, individuals should have a threshold amount of political information or understanding of the political situation in their country in order to participate in politics. "Political participation and political knowledge affect each other reciprocally" (Carpini & Keeter 1996, p. 186), which means, the increase or decrease in one will lead to the increase or decrease in the other.

The political participation process is considered the cornerstone in the democratic process, especially in the developing countries (third world countries) that seek democratic growth, and the co-participation between the public and the government in managing the political process in the country. Also political participation as a concept mirrors the creation of opposition political parties which aim to build their country's democracy. The author will introduce below some Arabic definitions for political participation translated from Arabic into English followed by English definitions of the same concept.

El-Baz (2000) indicated that "political participation refers to granting the individuals or citizens an equal opportunity to structure the formation of their government, to contribute in taking decisions regarding the fate of their countries, in addition to emphasize the individual's positive role in the political life either through voting or being a candidate and to participate in political institutions, parties, and discourses with others." (El-Baz, 2000, p. 358)

Moreover, some Arabic studies considered political participation as the individual's contribution in political actions that influences the decision making process and which includes the expression of opinion toward a specific political issue or phenomena, registration in a political party, involvement or engagement in civil society organizations, voting, being a candidate, and the granting of a legislative or executive position (Annabaa, 2011). According to El-Menoufy, political participation is the citizen's ability to take and announce decisions in an indirect manner that influences decision makers (El-Menoufy, 2011).

El-Samaluty (1987) pointed out that political participation is about taking state-related decisions with regard to the public voice and inclination. (Al-Samaluty, 1987, p. 149) It is the process through which the individual plays a meaningful role in the society, where he/she has the opportunity to participate in imposing the society's future goals or plans and to implement the most

suitable procedures to achieve these goals. (Al-Johary, 1984, p. 23) According to Soliman (1985), this process is mirrored in the selective or donatives efforts of the public to enrich their society through participating in its decision-making process from all society's strata, which can be in several forums, starting from interest in social affairs, political knowledge, voting, nominating to political institutions and membership, up to actions of political violence.

In English studies political participation is "involving and taking part in activities related to politics such as donating to campaigns or attempting to convince others how to vote" (Rosenstone & Hansen, 1993) or "political talk with friends and/or family" (Kenski & Stround, 2006, p. 187). Political participation is related to the citizens' freedom, equality among citizens, the declaration of the government that there is a constitutional and legislative right for citizens to participate and the opportunity to pursue this right of political participation without any pressures or scare tactics by the government. The researcher can give definition to political participation as being an individual's involvement and interaction in the political process with their government through voting, public opinion, being a candidate, and participating in political institutions to shape the political environment and political system in their country.

There are many forms of political participation: (1) Traditional forms, for instance, voting, political party membership, support for candidates through, for instance, donated money to support political parties and candidates. (2) Un-traditional forms are other forms of political participation, such as revolutions, demonstrations, and protests.

In sum, there is a traditional forms of political participation, for example, voting in elections, attending conferences or political meetings, participating in workshops, joining a political party, being a candidate, supporting a candidate, or being a member in professional and labor unions and this type of political participation activity is common in free and democratic countries. In addition, there is a non-traditional forms of political participation that is an alternative for the traditional one, for instance, demonstrations, protests, riots, revolutions, and coups, which are common in dictatorial regime countries, closing off the individual way to traditional form.

Generally, today's young people are less likely to participate in both political and civic activities than their predecessors were 30 years ago; some arguments exist over the reasons for this change towards disengagement in politics. One reason argued, is that other aspects of young people have also changed in the recent three decades. Traditionally, the transition to adulthood has been defined on the basis of five points; (1) leaving home, (2) completing school, (3) entering the workforce, (4)

getting married, and (5) having children. All of these aspects nowadays happen later in life than they did in the 1970s. As a result of this, it is not surprising that young people vote and participate in politics less (Cathy et al, 2007). In addition, many other factors affect the level of young's people participation in politics, for instance the level of education degree, and some other socio economic factors that will be described below.

3.6.1. The influence of media on political participation

The role of media in democratic societies is very important; through providing of factual information to citizens, media plays an important role in providing what has been labeled 'mobilizing information'. Mobilizing information is the content that goes beyond information about the political system or political actors to enable citizens to understand problems related to their communities and to engage in various forms of participatory activities (Eveland & Scheufele, 2000, p. 220); for instance, media can teach citizens about how and where he/she can vote or the places for donating money for political party, or give him more information about political parties and candidates, etc.

As noted over the last half century, political participation of citizens has been extensively studied, largely due to the importance of participation to democratic theory and practice (Dahl, 1989; Milbrath, 1965; Mutz, 2006; Pateman, 1970; Verba, Scholzman & Brady, 1995). Attempts to explain the decline in participation have focused on young people. Political participation increased over the life course, but lower starting levels among youth and increment in older groups have been observed (Miller, 1992, in Kenski, Pasek & Romer, 2006, p. 3).

The decline in political participation in the US has been an issue of both academic and popular concern. Voter turnout in congressional and presidential elections has dropped since 1960 (Brody, 1978, p. 223; Cassell & Luskin, 1988; Keeter, Zukin, Andolina & Jenkins, 2002), and Americans are less involved in political activities ranging from signing petitions to attending rallies (Miller, 1992; Putnam, 2000 in Kenski, Pasek & Romer, 2006, p. 3). Also, young people are less interested in politics and public affairs; only 19% of those between the ages of 18-29 say they follow politics and government "most of the time," as compared with 51% of those 50 year or older. Only 26% between the ages 15-24 they are involved in democracy and voting (Carpini, 2000, p. 341). Others indicated that young people in America participate more than older Americans in political actions, for instance, registration in political parties, voting in election, and most other forms of political involvement (Keeter et al., 2002; Lopez & Kirby, 2003; Soule, 2001). For example, youth groups

were more interested in involvement in political actions than other groups, though participation measures have been dropping for all age groups (Carpini, 2000).

Interestingly, watching public affairs content, or talk show programs about current issues on television are positively correlated with voting in elections and campaign contributions, whereas time spent watching television (likely to be primarily entertainment content) had negative correlation with participation on voting and other political forms and on participation in informal community activities (Putnam, 1995, p. 78). Others reveals that a decrease in newspapers readership among 17- to 24-year is associated with their decreasing political participation and not with a decrease in their political knowledge. Especially the decline in the newspapers readership in the United States has been since the 1990s. at the same time Americans' political participation, ranging from signing petitions and attending rallies to voting, also has been decreasing (Lee & Wei, 2009) The Author investigates below the association between use different kind of media or media consumption not only newspapers and young people political interest, knowledge, participation and awareness. Additionally young people engagement in civic activates.

3.6.2. Measuring of political participation

According to Campbell & Nojin Kwak (2010), respondents were asked about three types of involvement in traditional forms of political participation: attending a political meeting, rally, or speech; circulating a petition for a candidate or issue; and contacting a public official or a political party (McLeod et al., 1999; Milbraith & Goel, 1971; Xenos & Moy, 2007). Respondents reported the frequency of involvement in each type of participation in the past 2 months. In the present study, political participation has been measured by asking the following questions: "I would like you to write, for each one of these political actions that people can take, whether you have done any of these things, whether you might do it or would never under any circumstances do it. For instance, sign a petition, write or call an elected official, join boycotts for specific products, attend peaceful demonstrations, display a button, yard sign, bumper sticker, participate in protest or rally, or other sign to support candidate, run for public office, vote in elections, talk to others about politics, work for or donate money to a party, candidate or interest group, attend political meetings and some other political action or vote in an election". In addition, some questions concerning voting in national elections were included: "Did you vote in your country's recent elections?" and "If there were a national election tomorrow, would you participate?" The researcher summarized political

participation forms in the following

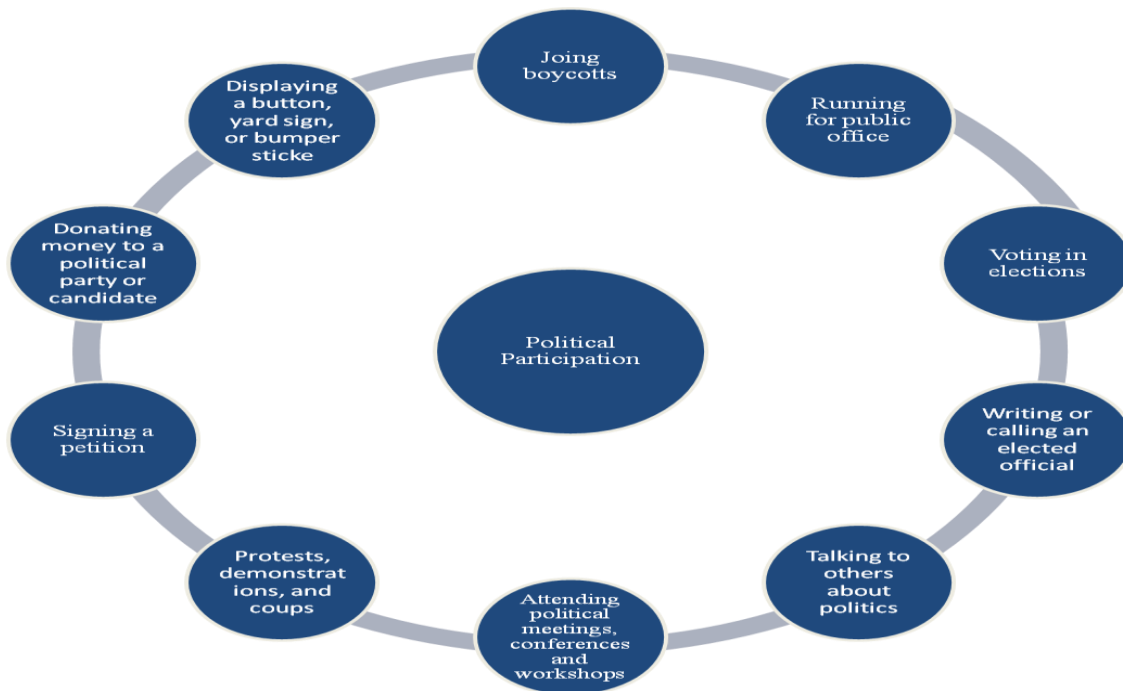


Figure 3.1. Measuring of political participation

3.6.3 Voting

Voter turnout is the percentage of eligible voters who cast a ballot in an election. After increasing for many decades, there has been a trend of decreasing voter turnout in most established democracies since the 1960s (Niemi & Weisberg, 2001, p. 31). Elections play a vital role in democracy because they ensure representation of popular will and enhance the legitimacy of the political system. Scholars found a strong and consistently positive effect of news media interactive communication on youth turnout for voting and participation in politics (Esser & de Vreese, 2007, p. 1195). Although young people's political and civic engagement or involvement in any type of political forms – participating in elections, supporting political organizations, or contacting officials' network campaigns, or contacting political groups via the Internet – voting is still the most basic and arguably most important democratic act and considered a cornerstone of democratic stability (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, 1999).

In addition, the Internet as a mass communication tool makes it increasingly possible to reach and engage youth voters (Zukin et al, 2006) because young people (18-25 years old) use the Internet far more than any other generation and they are more comfortable with new technology; therefore, many researchers are interested in the role of the Internet in political participation or examine whether the Internet encourages political participation more than other traditional media because the

Internet is used to facilitate various forms of political participation (e.g. Quentin, 2007). Also Tolbert and McNeal (2003) found that people who had access to the Internet were more likely to vote than people without access the Internet; consequently, the online political news can serve as an important tool to increase voting and political participation especially among young people, which agrees with Ward (1996). Lupia and Barid (2003) as well as Weber, Loumakis and Bergman (2003) found positive a relationship between Internet use and political participation.

In the current study the researchers try to gain a deeper understanding of German and Egyptian university student's turnout in recent and upcoming elections, comparing the democratic environment in both countries with the aim of proving that voting is not only important to build a democratic process but also that the democratic environment is important to increase youth turnout . "The 2004 U.S presidential election was unusual in the way that it produced one of the highest voter turnout rates in decades, the increase in turnout by 18 to 29 year olds was higher than in any other age group, jumping from 40.0 % to 49.0 % between 2000 and 2004" (Esser & de Vreese, 2007, p. 1196). In addition, U.S. political experience indicated that young women were more likely to vote than young men in the 2004 presidential campaign and the gap between them was 6.0 (Population Survey, 2004; Lopez et al., 2005 in Esser & de Vreese, 2007, p. 1200). Like the gender gap, the education gap also plays a key role in the voting process and has widened in the United States. In 2004, turnout among college-educated 18 to 29 year olds was almost twice as high as among lesser educated youth 61% to 34% according to Current Population Survey, 2004; see also Emerging Electorate Survey, 2004; Lopez et al., 2005; Pace Poll/Rock the Vote Survey, 2004). In the U.S in 2008, the turnout level was 63 percent of eligible's, a 2.4 percentage point increase over 2004 and the highest percentage to turn out since 64.8 percent voted for president in 1960. It was the third highest turnout since women were given the right to vote in 1920 (Center for the Study of the American Electorate, 2008, p. 10-12).

According to the overall results of the European elections in 2009, only 43.3% of the population turned out in elections; however, the percentage of turnout was much higher in most EU countries. For instance, the turnout level was 70.8% in the German Bundestag 2009 election, where 8.3% of the turnout level was distributed among the 18 to 25 years old, which reflects a decline of turnout among young people; in Saxony the turnout was 65.0% and in Dresden it was 68.2%. (Bundeswahlleiter 3rd of February 2011).

The participation in election campaigns in Germany can be described as high when compared to other European countries. Since 1949 the rate of participation in West Germany reached 85.3%,

which is very high for a country where voting is not obligatory (LeDuc; Niemi; Norris, 2002; Norris, 2002). The same trend could have been observed also in election campaigns in earlier stages of German history, just to give the example of the period 1919-1933, when on average 81.0 % of voters decided to cast the ballot (Gabriel; Holtmann, 2005). During *Bundestagswahlen* held in 1972, the participation rose and reached 91.1% of eligible persons. From this point, elections are marked by the sinking numbers of participating voters, which is also viewed as a crisis of party democracy (Wiesendahl, 1998).

During the first elections of unified Germany the percentage of voters reached 74.5%. This is an interesting phenomenon, when one bears in mind that the moment of reunification built an important point of departure for the future development of the country. The relatively low number of voters can be seen as an indicator of relatively small interest in the political sphere. The last three election campaigns, which are a subject of this analysis, bring the following outcomes: 1998 – 82.3%; 2002 – 79.1%, 2005 – 77.7%. What is also quite interesting is that there are substantial differences in voter participation in east and west regions of Germany. In the western part the participation is quite stable, in the eastern part it decreased by a large extent. This is perceived as an indication of better institutionalization of democratic habits in west federal states (Holtmann, 2005 In Musiałowska, 2008, p. 67).

In the last two terms of Egyptian parliament elections, 2006 and 2010, the turnout percentage of both elections was 25.0 % and 35.0 % respectively, which means only 14 million among the 80 million Egyptian population voted in these elections, as quoted by an Egyptian newspaper (*El-Shorouk*). However, the turnout of the 2005 Egyptian presidential election was 88.6% as announced by the Egyptian government. Accordingly, it is noticed that scholars are unable to determine an accurate percentage of turnout in the Egyptian elections, which the Egyptian citizens justify as fraudulent elections; as an example, the Egyptian 2010 parliament election that was the main reason for the protests of January 25th 2011. Consequently, large turnout and millions of Egyptians have voted in a referendum on constitutional reforms, a month after a popular uprising swept President Hosni Mubarak from power. According to Mohammed Attiyah, the head of the supreme judicial committee who supervised voting process, 18.5 million people voted in favor of the changes. Turnout was 41.2 % of the 45 million eligible voters (BBC News, 19 March 2011). This also was very clear in parliament election 2012 after the Egyptian revolution, the large turnout and millions of Egyptians have voted 62%.

3.7. Political Discourse

The author will start this part with discourse as a theoretical term; discourse gained an important role during the twentieth century, both in the relatively new discipline of linguistics and in the newer discipline of communication, two distinct meanings. First, it refers to stretches of communication beyond the small units which were examined with the traditional methods of linguistic analysis. Second, discourse directs attention to the social origins and consequences of communications. In the historical root, discourse has a Latin root in *discurrere*, which itself is related to *currere* (“to run”). French derives the terms *discourir* and *cours* from these roots; English similarly derives “discursive,” “excursion,” “current,” and “courier.” The core meaning is movement of one sort or another, or running around. This idea is embodied in current uses of “discourse” to refer to communication as social interchange, and was also reflected in older occurrences of the term. Famously, Descartes is envisaged as a journey round the philosophical issues with which he was concerned (Cobley, 2008).

Political discourse in general use comprises all forms of communication in and by political institutions or actors and all communication with reference to political matters. Thus, political public relations, both internal and external, news, commentary, films, talk shows, citizens’ everyday talk about politics, etc. are all sites of political discourse (Wessler, 2008). In the opinion of the author, political discourse refers to individuals’ interests in any form of communication or talking with others (family, friends, relatives, etc.) concerning political matters.

In sum the hallmark of a democracy is the ability of the people to discourse in it (William P. Eveland, Jr. & Myiah Hutchens Hively, 2009.p.205). Generally, research asked respondents to directly answer “with whom they discuss politics “(Kwak et al., 2005; Moy & Gastil, 2006). Frequency of political discussion is consistently found to have positive relationships with political awareness among university student’s. Researchers have also consistently found positive associations between frequency of discussion and political participation and awareness (Knoke, 1990a, 1990b; Lake & Huckfeldt, 1998; Leighley, 1990; Mutz, 2002b; Scheufele et al., 2004; Verba, Scholzman, & Brady, 1995; Wyatt, Katz, & Kim, 2000). Verba, Scholzman, and Brady (1995) argued for the important role of interpersonal communication in recruiting individuals for participation. It could also be that discussion influences participation indirectly through political knowledge or other variables, including news media use (McLeod et al., 1999). Network size refers to the number of people with whom an individual discusses politics (Eveland & Hively, 2009, p.206).

Additionally, Internet and online news serve as important sources of information as general also to increase information about politics (Weimann, 1982), when size of the discussion network is considered in analyses, it is consistently found to have a positive relationship to both knowledge and participation (i.e., Huckfeldt et al., 2004; Kwak et al., 2005; Leighley, 1990; McLeod et al., 1999; Moy & Gastil, 2006; Mutz, 2002b; Nir, 2005; William P. Eveland, Jr. & Myiah Hutchens Hively, 2009). Moreover, Social networks are also more likely to encounter politically active individuals. Leighley (1990) ; Verba et al. (1995), And that interacting of discussion and information about politics through Internet and social network with active individuals leads to political participation as a next step after interest, discussion and knowledge, This explanation could also be applied to the influence of political participation size on political awareness.

3.8. Political awareness

The Author's definition of the political awareness concept:

The author defines political awareness as the overall vision or individual's cognitions and ideas that include political interest and knowledge which facilitate the individual's ability and understanding of society's problem. This process stimulates the individual's responsibility towards participating to change the society's future and political process through participating in social and political aspects.

This definition as we can includes the following elements:

- 1) Political knowledge and cognitions.
- 2) Individual's political interest.
- 3) The capacity of political participation and the ability to change the political system.

Accordingly, the definition of the concept of political awareness includes the three elements that the researcher mentioned above, which constitute the political awareness, besides other elements that contribute to the increase of political awareness, for instance, the existence of large political events such as wars, military coups, and revolutions. Good examples concerning these political events are the revolutions in Egypt, Tunisia, and Libya in the year 2011, which contributed to the increase of the political awareness among young people who started to read the constitution and its resources, the formation of new governments, the election process and how all these changes work. All these events contribute to the increase of political interest, discussion, knowledge and participation, which in turn contribute to the formation and increase of political awareness.

Additionally, the educational level has its crucial influence on the formation of political awareness, for instance, individuals with higher degrees of education tend to have more political awareness than individuals with lesser degrees of education. In addition, the existence of an elite or political leader in a specific period of time can increase political awareness such as Mohamad Albaradi in Egypt 2010, who motivated the Egyptian public with his slogan (Call for change and political reform in Egypt) that led to the Egyptian revolution on the 25th of January 2011. Media plays a crucial role in increasing political awareness among its public through its news and political content, especially the new media tools such as the Internet, including YouTube, and social networks like Facebook, Twitter, etc.

In addition to all the factors mentioned above, which contribute to the formation of political awareness among young people, there are other crucial factors or elements called "direct means of communication", such as the family, school, university, political party, civil organization and peers with political experience or knowledge should also be considered; indirect means of communication are also involved in the formation of political awareness, such as mass media. For this reason the government should take into consideration all these factors in order to develop and form political awareness among young people and provide more intellectual trainings, courses, and workshops to increase political awareness.

3.8.1. Conclusion on the Operationalization

As noted above, several studies both Arabic and international studies have measured political awareness by using some questions for political knowledge, interest, or participation in political acts. In the present study the author uses a combination of some parts in addition to some other questions about political interest, discussion, knowledge, participation, that were re-arranged to be in the same scale by the author in one scale in order to build an index to measure political awareness.

Researchers studied political participation, knowledge, and interest by coding the answers in these political variables as zero (0= No participation) and one (1= participation), for example (Dylko, 2010, p. 523; Pasek & Kenski, 2006, p. 12; Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1996), and subsequently sum up or compute the average of the scores (Eveland & Dylko, 2007; Nisbet & Scheufele, 2004) or count the correct and incorrect answers for participants. "Such a cumulative index accurately taps the breadth of one's participation in politics, because it gives respondents higher scores for engaging in a more diverse set of acts" (Dylko, 2010).

Interestingly, the old measurements of political participation might misrepresent or underestimate the extent or the level of participation in politics, especially for those respondents who frequently partake in just one or two acts, but never engage in any other political activities. Such individuals might be deeply involved in politics — albeit in their own idiosyncratic ways — but the cumulative

index will portray them as less politically participatory than other individuals who engage in politics less frequently, however, when they do engage, they partake in a greater variety of acts. Conceptually, this appears problematic since researchers often use the participation index to tap the level or intensity of one's participation in politics — not the breadth (Eveland & Scheufele, 2000; Kwak, Williams, Want, & Lee, 2005; Scheufele & Nisbet, 2002). Whether the breadth and the level of participation in politics are interchangeable is an empirical question that needs to be answered.

In addition to the untested assumptions, some researchers employed a variety of political participation operationalizations with some combinations of all possible political acts into the same index, including voting (McCluskey, Deshpande, Shah & McLeod, 2004; McLeod, Scheufele & Moy, 1999; Moy, McCluskey, McCoy & Spratt, 2004); others separated participation into voting and everything else (Bimber, 2001; Eveland & Dylko, 2007; Eveland & Scheufele, 2000; Hollander, 1996), or donated money to political causes, which support candidates or political party programs and everything else (Bimber, 2001). Other scholars subdivided the participation index into the acts inside and acts outside of the political system (Kim, Wyatt & Katz, 1999), acts that have a potential of public confrontation (Mutz, 2002), acts that are public versus private (Huckfeldt, 1979; McCluskey et al., 2004).

Again, in the present study the author measures political awareness through an index set in two dimensions. The first dimension is an index for each variable separately (political interest, discussion, knowledge, and participation). The second dimension is an index that combines all the above three variables and computes the averages to measure political awareness and get its' scores (see Figure 3.2)

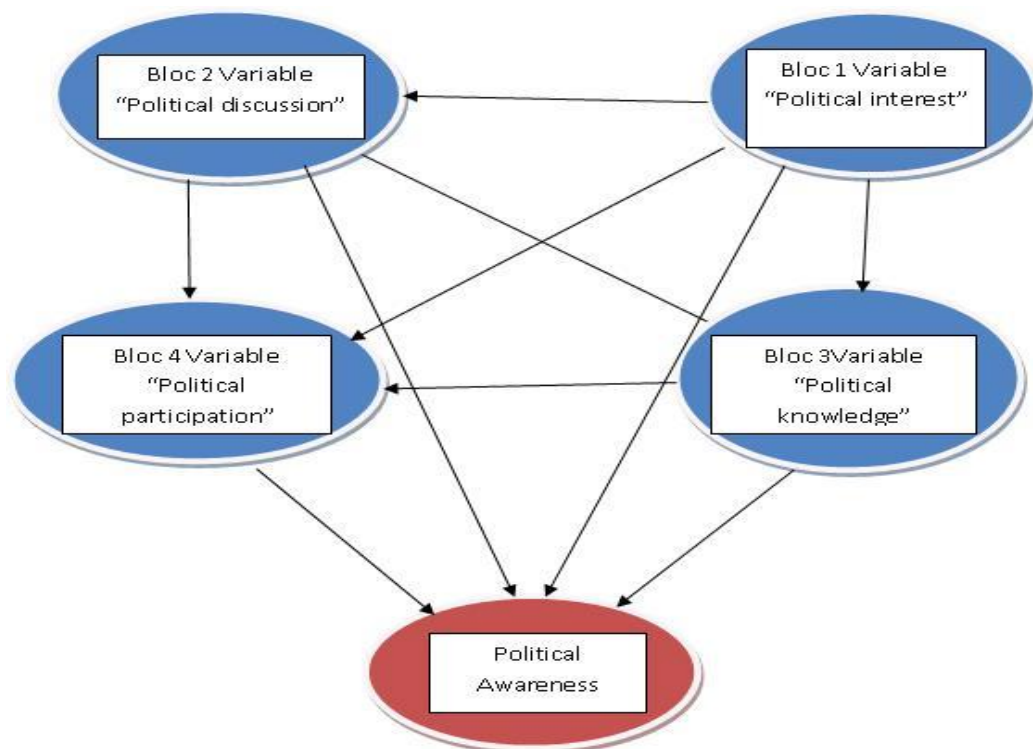


Figure 3.2 political awareness model

3.8.2. Mass media and political awareness

Generally scholars agree that the media plays an important role in political awareness. “Several scholars focused on the role of media use in political awareness; using different types of media they found that media effects are often significantly associated with political awareness” (Chaffee & Frank, 1996; John et al., 2002; McLeod et al., 1968).

One of the most important studies in the examination of traditional media's (print and broadcasting, film and entertainment content) role in political awareness was in 2006 by Kenski, Jamieson, Pasek & Romer, who examined the role of the various contents of mass media in young people's disengagement from politics, following Putnam's hypothesis about the beneficial effects of civic ties to political involvement. Contrary to Putnam they found that civic activity is positively associated with political awareness and media use, whether information or entertainment oriented, while news media are especially effective in promoting political awareness. However, most studies have found that time spent in front of a television is correlated with lower participation and knowledge (Hooghe, 2002). But there is no general agreement that television use represents a simple negative influence (see Peer et al., 2003). Some researchers suggested that those using the Internet to seek for information, especially political information, exhibit higher levels of political efficacy, knowledge and participation (Johnson & Kaye, 2003; Kenski & Stroud, 2006 in Kenski, Jamieson, Pase & Romer, 2006, p. 10). Also, they found that civic activity is strongly related to political awareness and those who participate in civic activity are more likely to be politically engaged than those who do not participate in civic activities (Kenski, Jamieson, Pasek & Romer, 2006, p. 15).

Chapter4: The Political and media systems in Germany and Egypt

4.1 Egyptian Political system

The Arab Republic of Egypt is located in North-Eastern corner of Africa covering a big area of about 1 million sq km. the country's official language is Arabic. English is widely used and understood as well. Libya is located on the western borders of Egypt. Sudan is in the south; Palestine, Jordan on the north border. The red Sea is the east. The Suez Canal links the red and Mediterranean Seas ⁽¹³⁾. Egyptian population according to population country ranks 2011 are 80, 4 million (population country ranks, July 2010). The age structure 0-14 years: 33% (male 13, 3 million/female 12, 7 million), 15-64 years: 62.7% (male 25, 1/female 24, 3), and 65 years and over: 4.3% (male 1, 5/female 1, 8).

The Egyptian political system refers to the rules, regulation and practices, its political structure and fundamental laws, all which shows how the government have, its state power and relationship between the state and society works. Egypt being a Republic with a democratic system outlines the political system and defines its public authorities. The Constitution of the Arab Republic of Egypt, adopted in 1971 and amended in 1980, has its roots in the English Common Law and the Napoleonic Code. It declares Egypt as an Arab Republic with a democratic system and the head of the state is the President who selected by voting for a time of six years and maybe re-elected for other subsequent terms. The implementation of general state policy is formulated and supervised by him. He is also the Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces. The last elected president of the republic was Mohammed Hosni Mubarak” ⁽¹⁴⁾ who step down after January ²⁵ revolution, 2011. ⁽¹⁵⁾

Egypt has been a presidency since the ²³rd July revolution led by Gamal Abd El Nasser in 1952 when the Free Army Officers' movement overthrew the current regime then and expelled King Farouk who has been known as the king of Egypt and Sudan backed by the British. The first

¹³ -source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/egypt

¹⁴ -Source: <http://www.123independenceday.com/egypt/political-system.html>

¹⁵ - The former President Muhammad Hosni Mubarak has remained in office for nearly, he ruled Egypt since 14 October 1981 to 18th February 2011 after Egyptian revolution 25th January 2011, MUBARAK ruled Egypt longer than anyone since Muhammad Ali Pasha, the Albanian-born viceroy of the Ottoman Empire credited with bringing Egypt into the modern age Mubarak re-elected for a six-year term in September 2005. Executive authority is vested in the President. The President formulates and supervises the implementation of general state policy. He also acts as Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces. In May 2005, Egypt amended article 76 of its constitution enabling Egyptians, for the first time in Egypt's history, to elect their President through direct secret ballot” <http://www.egyptembassy.net/political.cfm>”

Egyptian president in 1953 was Mohamed Naguib who has been a general in the army. Interestingly, since 1954, only three presidents have ruled Egypt, each of them shaping the media system. Nasser (1954-1970) used the media as an instrument of political mobilization with strategy of promoting Arab nationalism. Anwar al- Sadat's (1970-1981) politics of liberalization and opened the door to party papers. Hosni Mubarak (1981- 2011) and he also support media and Egyptian business elites and now Egyptian media consider as astron media competition in the Arab world (Richter, 2004). Moreover, Egypt have very old parliament as elected in 1990 under a new electoral law, the People's Assembly (Majlis ash-Sha'ab) (¹⁶).

Over the ages, and as far back as seven thousand years, Egypt stood the land where civilizations have always met. The Pharaohs together with the Greeks and the Romans have left their imprints here. The cultural mix in this country is natural, given its heritage. Egypt can be likened to an open museum with monuments of the different historical periods on display everywhere. With the genius of place and time, the country stands the Arab world's cultural beacon. The movie industry was launched in Cairo a hundred years ago (¹⁷).

Egypt has emerged as an important economic and political force in the middle east countries, and there were many events in Egypt assured that Egypt have a growing vitality like 1952 revolution which brought Nasser to power, 1956 Nationalization of Suez canal, 1957 Nationalization decrees and the support for high dam from soviet 1958 and union with Syria 1958, the united Arab republic (Egypt) after 1952 revolution has set an economic and political development program , over 150 factories have been built it makes Egyptian revolution like French revolution in Europe (¹⁸). Additionally, “economic development supporting new information technologies like mobile phone and the Internet which first introduced at universities in 1886, and became available to the public since 1993” (Richter, 2004).

4.2. Egyptian media system

4.2.1 History and Political Framework:

The first appearance of the press in the world was in the fourteenth century in Italy, England, and then Germany. The most important two factors that helped in press prosperity are, firstly the

¹⁶ Source: http://www.egyptgiftshop.com/modern_egypt/egyptian_government.html

¹⁷ Source <http://www.empc.com.eg>

¹⁸ Source: http://www.egyptgiftshop.com/modern_egypt/egyptian_government.html

invention of Gutenberg's printing, secondly, the mail service. The oldest newspaper was found in the world in Strasbourg in France 1609. France has established the Gazzit in 1931, which called "Gazzit de France". It's notable that France was the first country among European countries that knew the art of press industry, in addition to many Arabic newspapers that have been published and issued in France, for example, (EL Khawater in 1964), The Arab world in the same year). to the France News Agency (A.F.B) and freedom of speech (Sabat, p.75-107).

Egypt was not very far from that, the print has been known in Egypt in the era of the French occupation in 1798, in this time a number of official newspapers and books have been issued, but Egyptians did not take full benefit of it till the era of Mohamed Ali Basha rule, during this time the first Arabic printing company has been established in 1819 and was called (Bulak printer). It subsequently setup some printing in Cairo and Alexandria in (1845-1863). Interestingly, the first color printer in the world has been established in Egypt 1866 (Sabat, p. 62).

Egypt was the first Arab country that knew press since the time of French occupation where two France news papers issued (Courier de Egypt) in August, 1798 and the magazine of (Ladikad Ajabsaan, October 1798). These two newspapers were not in Arabic language, and then Mohamed Ali Basha established (Alwaqae Almasrea or Egyptian Gazette in 1828) as the first Arabic newspaper. The first medical newspaper that was issued in the Arab countries was in Egypt since 1865 and was called (Yasop Alteb). Egypt not only the earliest country in Arabic world that started printing newspapers but also the first to start printing newspapers that targeted the young people, such as (Raudat Almdares and Diwan Almdares in 1870) (Abd-Elghani, 1985, p.13-37)

The first newspaper that was issued by native Egyptian citizen is (Wadi Alnile, 1867) followed by a series of Egyptian newspapers such as Alahram in 1876 (Sabat, p. 152). The Egyptian Media philosophy is based on a firm foundation; the first priority is to achieve the sovereignty in the national borders, and to activate the participation in decision. Making and maintaining the privacy of culture and the national unity and to expose it to all other cultures. The Egyptian media system is based on a glorious history that started with the establishment of the ministry of national guidance in November 1952 as the first information Ministry in the history of Egypt. And the establishment of the information Authority as the first information Authority in the area in (1954) The Middle East news Agency appeared as the first News agency in the region (¹⁹).

¹⁹ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_stodio.html

The name of the national guidance changed to be the Ministry of culture and national guidance after that it gained its previous name once again till 1970. The sectors of culture and information reunited once again under a context of different variables at that period in 1982 and with a presidential Decree No. 43 a separate Ministry for Information was established under the name of the Ministry of state for information in 1986; it became an Important Ministry full of its administrative, legal and legislative aspects.

Egypt has been an integrated information infrastructure capable of addressing the recent age and dealing with its' issues and variables under a context of freedom, democracy and free expression. Egypt has launched true information sates (Nile sat 101 and Nile sat 102), that supported the Egyptian existence in the International Information space. Media production city (The Easter Hollywood) stands as a great Media and industrial base enriches the drama Production in Egypt and the Arab world as well. It keeps the Egyptian leadership and the Egyptian cultural identity; it also contains the biggest Academy for Media science.

The National Authority for Information today is the memory of the Egyptian nation, reserving and documenting the Egyptian history. It has an international information center with a unique importance. The free press addressing the public conscience becomes one of the main bases of the democratic system in Egypt today ⁽²⁰⁾.

The Egyptian Radio and television (ERTU) works with the Ministry of Information to manage and operate all eight government- owned TV stations and radio in Egypt. Additionally, Egyptian media system has different type of media ownership: Traditional media:

- ❖ Print media: The Egyptian print media landscape is diversified in terms of content and ownership. It includes, government: The Egyptian government owns the biggest and main three national newspapers: El Ahram, El Akhbar, and El Goumhurya. The editors of the three newspapers are appointed by the president through a recommendation of the high Council of the press ⁽²¹⁾.
- ❖ Partisan: Political and parties have the right to publish their own newspapers. Party-owned newspapers are considered competitors of the national newspapers, they also attract a high percentage of readers by addressing political issues, taboos and sensitive issues, and the

²⁰ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_stodio.html

²¹ Source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/egypt

funding for partisan newspapers comes from the party itself. These newspapers enjoy little freedom from censorship in comparison with governmental or national newspapers, such as AlWafd, Al-Ahrar, and Al Ghad newspapers ⁽²²⁾. The government controls these three leading dailies newspapers and a number of weekly newspapers, and the Egyptian Middle East News Agency (Richter, 2010).

Independent newspapers: The Egyptian print media market has began to include flourishing independent newspapers, and it attracted also a big share of readers due to professional reporting and covering very taboos and sensitive political issue ⁽²³⁾. The independent newspapers that are funded by a private owners and advertised not by government like Al Massry AlYoum, AlYoum7, Al Sherouq are considered one of the most successful independent newspapers in Egypt ⁽²⁴⁾. These kind of print media (independent and partisan) played an important key role in Egypt in calling for change in Egyptian political environment.

4.2.2 The Egyptian press

The first newspaper was launched by the French during Napoleon's invasion in 1798 (Richter, 2010), but as Arabic newspapers Egypt was the first Arab country to know the written press in 1828 the first official newspaper was issued with the name of "The Egyptian Gazette "El-wakae'a El-Masrya, "During British colonial rule, the Egyptians' struggle for independence served as the cradle for a strong nationalist party press. In 1960 Nasser nationalized the press" (Richter, 2010).

In 1967 the public newspapers began to appear, the first public newspaper to be issued was Wady "El-Nile valley ". In the following stages the different newspapers began to be a reflection of the political, social, economical, and cultural conditions in every stage. Laws and rules appeared in order to protect the press and to control the legal affairs of the press." In 1799 the first legislation of publishing was issued in Egypt. Other laws began to appear since law No. 156 in 1960, followed by law No. 148 in 1980. The later law stipulated that press is a public free authority practicing its role freely in serving the society and as an expression of public opinion trends in the framework of the basic components of the society and access to law No. 96 in 1996 about organizing the press.

The ownership of different newspapers began to spread after it was limited to the public ownership. So, different kinds of newspaper began to appear as the national partisan or independent

²² Source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/egypt

²³ Source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/egypt

²⁴ Source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/egypt

newspapers with different points of view and representing very trends interact through the opinion and the other opinion to serve the issues of the nation. The Egyptian constitution is supporting the press. The high council for press approved the press charter on 26th March 1998. In 2006 depriving liberty punishments were cancelled in many press crimes. There were many important adjustments in the penal code articles to ensure press freedom and its independence in a climate of freedom and democracy. As a result, Press flourished to extend the number of newspapers in Egypt in 2007 to exceed 530 newspapers and magazines” (²⁵).

Egypt has the most amounts of printed publications in the region. There are at present more than 500 newspapers published in Egypt, including regional publications and magazines. The state has a monopoly on printing, advertising and distribution. It exerts multiple forms of pressure that act as disincentives for journalistic independence. Some established columnists, though, enjoy a higher level of freedom. Print media is divided into three categories: state-owned, party-owned, and privately-held publications.

- 1) - State-owned publications: The Egyptian government owns three major daily Egyptian newspapers. These are: Al Ahram, Al Akhbar, and Al Gomhuria. The editors of these newspapers are appointed and compensated by the government.
- 2) - Political party publications: Most of the party-owned newspapers are weeklies, but the opposition party maintains a few dailies.
- 3) - Privately-owned publications: Tone and content are more freedom. Very rarely does the Supreme Press Council authorize independent publications that are printed in Egypt. But the vast majorities are printed outside Egypt, Cyprus and Lebanon. They are subject to censorship, the Foreign Publications Censor, which can order the seizure of issues or order them not to be printed or distributed.

The Middle East News Agency (MENA) was considered by authorities as a strategically important institution that operates like a government department. It is bureaucratically top-heavy and reflects only official viewpoints. It provides news and information in Arabic, French and English (²⁶).

²⁵ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_stodio.html.

²⁶ Source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/egypt/in 29 Mar. 10

4.2.3. Radio and TV Union

The British Marconi company established a radio system in 1934, and TV broadcasting started in 1960 with American help (El-Gody, 2004), and not so long, official radio broadcasts in Egypt started in May, 1934, ‘‘The Egyptian Radio and TV Union was established on 13th of August 1970. Since 1994 the Union held an annual festival for the Radio and TV. Production (Cairo festival for the Arab media since 2007) the festival aimed at achieving a convergence of Arab media, support the concept of Arab brotherhood and to activate Radio and TV. Production in order to upgrade the quality of the product in Radio and TV this would achieve integration between the Arab establishments and activate the market of the Radio and TV Products. At the beginning of 2002, an information centre was established; this centre is aiming at keeping a pace with all the development on media field. The Union aims to achieve and deliver the audio and visual broadcast message in the frame of the general policy of the society and its media requirements’’ (27).

❖ Television

Television first aired in Egypt or the first broadcasting of the Egyptian TV was seen for the first time on the 21st of July 1960 through just one channel and just for few hours a day. After one year, another channel was launched in July 1961. In 1980, the regional TV channels appeared to serve different regions of Egypt. 6 local channels beside channel 1 and channel 2 were broadcasting in Egypt.

In 1990, the Egyptian satellite channels began to be broadcasted as the first Arabic satellite channels. More satellite channels follow to be broadcasted especially Nile TV. Specialized channels which included news, Drama, funny programs, Culture, Sport channels, family, information channels, 7 educational channels and other channels for high education and scientific researches; In addition to an international channel broadcast in English and French (28).

The first launch of the Egyptian television was 7 o'clock in the evening of July 21st 1960; it lasted for just 5 hours. TV has been developed as facts and records report, the total broadcasting hours in 2006 / 2007 was about 62567 hours (on an average of about 528 hours a day): the central channels 23745, space channels 19130, specialized channels 39693 hours. The first radio station in the world was in America in 1920 after Marconi successful in 14 December in 1901 to complete the first

²⁷ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_studio.html

²⁸ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_studio.html

wireless transmission for radio wave and the first radio station in (Belzberg city in the state of Pennsylvania, USA), and the first Radio station in Germany started in 1923 ⁽²⁹⁾.

Egypt started radio broadcasting in the 1920s by using private radio stations or popular stations originally established for commerce purposes. The broadcasting of those stagnations was limited. They were focusing on Cairo and Alexandria.

The first Egyptian governmental radio station was launched on 31st of May 1934. After 1952 revolution, a new development era has begun for the Egyptian radio systems as the technical and media abilities has been enhanced and then new radio stations have been launched. The Egyptian radio stations played an important role in supporting the political leadership moreover; they enriched the development, the social and the political awareness aspects. Some of these stations have a role in collecting the Arab support to the Egyptian culture and political role in the area (like the Voice of the Arabs) ⁽³⁰⁾.

Since this time 1979s, the radio and TV union has been established and as a result the ordinary radio stations became broadcasting networks. Now, the Egyptian radio has seven new broadcasting networks: the general program and local radio stations (they include 11 local radio stations in all the Egyptian regions), the culture network (it includes the European program, the second program, music program, and the educational program stations) Then the Middle East Network, The Voice of the Arabs Network (it includes 3 radio stations and The Holly Qur'an. Finally there is the directed programs network which broadcasts its programs through 44 broadcasting services using 34 languages. These programs include local stations like the different FM programs that are directed to the people in the entire continental in the world. In later years launching stations on the short wave has been spread. There are also specialized stations two of them are commercials'' ⁽³¹⁾.

The total broadcast of the Egyptian radio stations is about 190.000 hours every year on average of about 520 hours per day ⁽³²⁾.

²⁹ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_stodio.html

³⁰ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_stodio.html

³¹ Source: http://www.ertu.org/eng/ENG_stodio.html

³² Source: <http://alfrasha.maktoob.com/showthread.php?t=362311>

4.2.4 Other Media Outlets

❖ Egyptian Satellite

Satellite broadcasting started in Egypt when the Arab Satellite Communication Organization or Arabsat launched in 1985. The Arabsat is the top satellite services provider ⁽³³⁾.

The second satellite provider is the (Nile Sat 101) that was launched in 1998 and the (Nile Sat 102) that was launched in 2000 are considered the real beginning of the satellite age in Egypt. The two satellites provide national services as they deliver information devices' for all urban areas from North Sinai to Toshka and El-Owinat and Elwady Elgadid. Moreover, they provide the terrestrial networks with information services ⁽³⁴⁾.

At the international level, Nile satellites (101 - 102) have a great presence and introduced a great media services. These services added a lot to the Egyptian media and the Arabian media as well. The most important service is to activate the interaction between the different cultures and to provide the Egyptian civilization to the frame of respecting the Egyptian identity and its privacy ⁽³⁵⁾.

The two Egyptian's satellites (101 and 102) are broadcasting 24 compressed satellite channels which in return broadcast 180 TV channels and 800 Egyptian, Arabian, and international radio stations. About 180 Egyptian, Arabian and international TV channel have been rented. These channels have been viewed by millions of people. On the middle of 2007 the satellite network had more than 380 channels (open and coded) and 95 radio stations besides the Internet and broadcasting available services which millions of people can make use of. The Ministry of Information in collaboration with the ministry of Communication and Information Technology began the initial studies to launch the third generation of satellites (Nile Sat 103) to support TV and radio broadcasting and to exchange data. The studies include the possibility to add modern technologies to ensure fast service for TV and radio besides improving the transfer of the image and to improve communication services ⁽³⁶⁾.

The Ministry of Communication and Information Technology has discussed establishing a specialized company to deliver media services like the interaction TV and transfer data with high

³³ Source: www.ejc.net

³⁴ Source: <http://www.sis.gov.eg/Ar/Arts&Culture/tv/>

³⁵ Source: <http://www.aljazeeraalk.net/forum/showthread.php>

³⁶ Source: <http://www.sis.gov.eg/Ar/Arts&Culture/tv/>

speed. Besides, the cooperation in the field of constructing electronic libraries for radio and TV Union and make use of fiber networks and wireless services which already exist” (³⁷).

❖ Private satellite channels

Private Egyptians satellite channels launched on the (Nile-Sat) with different kinds of content and programming. The first Egyptian private satellite network was Dream TV, which included two channels (Dream 1 and Dream 2), both channels introduce divers program: entertainment, religious, political shows, port, drama and news. (EL Mehwer) was the second satellite channels following (Dream) and it is similar with (Dream) in its programs content. The third satellite channel is (OTV) with more content and diversity in political talk show program. Moreover, in the last two years, the El Hayat (the life) net work was launched with two entertainment channel and in the last year started to introduce Talks show program (³⁸). All these private channels also promote more awareness for people about what’s happening in Egypt in the last two years especially concerning the political corruptions and helped Egyptian citizen’s to promote more political awareness about their country problems.

❖ Egyptian Cinema

The first moving pictures took in Egypt and show in Cairo was in 1897, 20 May, and in 1912 one of the foreign people who inhabited in Egypt sent to have a camera and photography technical from France after that show in Egypt in Tahrir square the first moving pictures for tourist group at backs of camels beside pyramids. In 1925 Egyptian national bank setup Egypt company for cinema and theatre that is considered the first company for short films production. In 1927 (Lila) a film production Company for cinema graphic was established in Egypt, followed by Asia Films Company. Egypt company for theatre and cinema but cameras, photography and picture quality wasn’t like the others in Europe .after that in succession was set up photography studios .In 1960 the Egyptian public establishment of cinema was set up, and after that the cinema institution, then in1963 the Egyptian public establishment for cinema merged with the public establishment for cinema, radio and television. Then the Arabic cinema production companies stages started, universal cinema production company, films distribution companies for cinema show –and Cairo company for film production, also in 1989 the Prime Minister of Egypt opened the first (lab) workshop for film printing in Egypt and the Middle East, then the Egyptian film flourish with

³⁷ Source: <http://www.aljazeeraatalk.net/forum/showthread.php?p=1078403>

³⁸ Source: www.ejc.net

generation of directors and scripts writers and novelist, now the Egyptian film reached to high standard shows in international festivals (Sabat, 2005).

❖ Media Production City

Media Production City second Hollywood in the world and the first Hollywood in Middle East and its name was also east Hollywood. Media Production City largest announced to the media production in the Middle East (Hollywood East) ⁽³⁹⁾. The draft Media Production City supported the Egyptian satellite project as it ensures the provision of all the requirements and needs of direct broadcast in the space age of the Egyptian Media Production well as the requirements and needs of terrestrial broadcasting as well“ ⁽⁴⁰⁾.

4.3. Germany media system and political environment

Germany is the most populous country in Europe, with 81 million inhabitants. Since 1990; it has been a federal republic consisting of 16 states, until then the country had been separated into two states as a result of World War II (1939-1945). Next to the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), established in Western occupations zones, there existed the Germany Democracy Republic (GDR) on the territory of the former Soviet zone of occupation. Through reunification in 1990; five new federal states were added (Wilke, 1961). About 82.5 million people live (2005) in Germany; 33 million households of which 98 per cent have at least one TV-set. About 10 per cent of the population are foreigners or have roots outside of Germany. Germany looks back at a long history of mass media. Some of the first newspapers started here roughly 400 years ago. During the years of the Nazis the mass media had become a tool of dictatorship. In 1945 the media experienced an “hour zero” and started nearly completely a new. The post-war media system was based on the principle of press freedom as stipulated in the constitution of 1949. Until 1990 Germany was a divided country.

The media system of the former GDR was highly centralized and worked under the control of the Communist Party. It disappeared during the process of unification, but patterns of media use still

³⁹ Source: <http://alfrasha.maktoob.com/showthread.php?t=362311>

⁴⁰ Source <http://www.aljazeeraatalk.net/forum/showthread.php?p=1078403>

differ between East and West. Today the major media production centers are located in the “old” West; newspapers of the former GDR are usually controlled by Western companies (⁴¹).

The constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany, founded on May 23, 1949, guarantees in Article 5 freedom of opinion as well as the freedom of the press, the freedom of broadcasting, and the freedom of films. Also, guaranteed is freedom of information, censorship is forbidden. These liberties are restricted only by general law, especially by personal rights and the protection of youth. According to the regulation of competences in the constitution, the federal states are responsible for creating the judicial basis for broadcasting. The central government has only to provide the technical infrastructure. By developing the broadcasting system, the federal states have agreed to regulate certain aspects of electronic media in a similar or common way in accordance with the broadcasting Treaty (Rundfunkstaatsvertrag). An important role for media legislation and the media structure is fulfilled by the federal constitutional court (Wilke, 1961). According to this, Germany lives’ in freedom in media content, media ownership, and media content, this kind of freedom help individual to gathering political information and build political awareness for individual as general and young people as particular.

Germany is a parliamentary democracy with a multi-party system. The administrative authorities are divided between the federal government and the federal state governments. This division of power is also of great importance for the Germany media system. Germany is regarded as the birthplace of the modern mass media. In the city of Mainz Johannes Gutenberg invented the printing press around 1450. And it was in Germany, at the beginning of seventeenth century after several preliminary stages – that the first periodical papers were developed (Relation in 1605, and Aviso in 1609). At this time the Germany Reich was a federation of more than 300 territories. As a result more news papers were published here than in all other European countries combined. At the end of the seventeenth century there were already about 70, at the end of eighteenth century the number had risen to more than 200 (Wilke, 1961).

4.4. Germany media system

4.4.1 History and Political Framework:

“In 1945, a completely new period in the history of the Germany media system began. The fundamental decision was made by the Allied victors. In the three Western zones the occupying

⁴¹ Source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/germany/ 29 Mar. 10

authorities wanted to set up a free and democratic media system to prevent future misuses by propaganda. In the Soviet occupation zone the media were again tied to the state government and the party leadership, in accordance with Marxist- Leninist theory. The Western Allies issued licenses for news papers (and magazines) to private investors. Thus, 144 papers had come into existence by 1949. In the Soviet occupational zone licenses were almost exclusively issued to parties and organization. Private ownership of newspapers was prohibited” (Wilke, 1961).

4.4.2 The Germany press

The local and regional newspaper market is strong and important in Germany. In 2005, total newspaper circulation stood at 21.66 million, most of which is subscription press as opposed to boulevard press. The tabloid press in Germany is often referred to as ‘boulevard presses. 95 per cent of the subscription press claims to be local, which is a circulation of 15.15 million. There is only a small number of national newspapers; BILD, Süddeutsche Zeitung (SZ), Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung (FAZ), Welt, Frankfurter Rundschau (FR), Tageszeitung (taz). They claim to be independent and ‘above parties’, but most cover a liberal and conservative spectrum. In terms of circulation figures, the national newspapers account for 1.65 million. Another 4.86 million papers are sold on the street. The top-selling German tabloid paper is BILD Zeitung, with a circulation of 3.6 million ⁽⁴²⁾.

The first radio program in Germany was broadcast on October 29, 1923, in Berlin. The telecommunications prerogative lay in the hands of state, so that radio was put under the custody of postal service. In 1923/1924 nine regional broadcasting organizations were established, private investors also participated. Yet the majority of the stakes remained in the possession of the state postal service. The leading basic idea was to create a non-political educational and entertaining broadcasting service. In 1932, the private investors were expelled and broadcasting was handed over completely to the state. This facilitated the takeover of the broadcasting system by the nationalist Socialists in 1933. They centralized broadcasting and put it under control of the propaganda ministry (Wilke, 1961).

⁴² Source: http://www.ejc.net/media_landscape/article/germany/ 29 March 2010

4.4.3. Radio and Television

“The beginnings of television also fell into the period of National Socialist rule. The first public presentation took place on March 22, 1935. And after World War 2 there were six radio stations. The number increased to nine by the end of the 1950s, in 1960, two national broadcasting were established, and one for West Germany and the GDR (Deutschlandfunk), and two foreign broadcast services (Deutsche Welle and Stimme der DDR).

In 1950, a consortium of public broadcasting stations (Arbeitsgemeinschaft der öffentlich-rechtlichen Rundfunkanstalten or ARD) was founded. On this basis television in basis television in the Federal Republic of Germany was built up. The regular start of the first channel followed on November 1, 1954. The broadcasting stations of the federal states contributed proportionally to the joint programming. In 1962, the Federal states agreed to bring into being a joint second national TV station (Zweites Deutsch Fernsehen or ZDF, which started in April, 1, 1963. Since that time a public duopoly has existed in German television .the ZDF is also organized by the principles of public control by a supervising board with representatives of several social and political groups, associations, and parties.

New technologies gave the starting signal for the dual broadcasting system in Germany. Today it consists of two pillars: the still powerful public broadcasting organizations and the numerous private programs provides. ARD and ZDF broadcast one main TV program each and common culture, children’s, and parliamentary channel. In addition both are also offering their own digital programs. Each of 11 broadcasting stations in the federal states possesses yet another T V channel. A joint venture by ARD and ZDF is Deutschland Radio.

Besides the public sector there exists a multifaceted private broadcasting sector in Germany. The licenses are issued by a telecommunication agencies at the level of the federal states .there are also supervised advertising regulations and certain content requirements. Today, more than 200 German radio programs and 30 German TV channels can be received. Nationwide operating radio stations have established themselves in part; however, there have also been attempts to introduce local radio stations.

Two big commercial TV organizations, RTL 1 and SAT.1/ProSieben, emerged. In Germany RTL group (a member of the Bertelsmann group) owns, in addition to its main program channel, several other channel (RTL 2,Super RTL,VOX, and n-T V). The SAT .1/ ProSieben media company owns the programs SAT 1, ProSieben, Kabel 1, and N24. This group constituted the core of the Germany

media corporation of Leo Kirch, which went into insolvency in 2002. It was sold to American Haim Saban, who resold it in 2006 to other foreign investment groups. Apart from the full programs, there are also special news and sport channel.

A third pillar of the Germany television is pay-TV .in Germany this format, due to the sheer size of the free TV market, has not managed to become Widely accepted. The channel premiere has been attempting since 1999, with a number of special interest program (sport and movies), to gain ground in the pay-TV market and was listed at the stock exchange n 0005” (Wilke, 1961).

4.4.4 Other Media Outlets

Germany started the Internet in the mid-1990, and it expanded quickly. In 2006, 60 percent of the population used the Internet and only 20 percent of people over 60 years old. Today, almost all Germany daily newspapers and numerous magazines are present in the Internet with their own websites and many radio and television station used Internet also specially after Internet protocol television (IP TV) (Wilke, 1961).

“Germany is the first country in western Europe from 2005 to 2011 in the rank of Internet users and penetration in select Countries in Western Europe and % of population by million the number of Internet users in Germany growth from (37.5 million) person in 2005 (43.2%) of population, this number increased to (44.2 million) person in 2008 as (53.5%) of population and this population according to 2008 population statistic is 80 million. And this number of Internet users expected to increase in 2011 to (52.1 million) person as 63.4% of population”⁽⁴³⁾.

4.5 Conclusion

The presentation of the Egyptian and German media system in this chapter suggests the following:

1. Both countries have very old roots and history regarding their possession of the different types of media outlets ownership; whether the traditional media such as the Radio, Television and newspapers, or the nontraditional ones such as the internet. Despite the fact that the Internet was

⁴³ Source: www.Internetworldstats.com/stats.htm , 2008

used much earlier in Germany than in Egypt, due to the lack of infrastructure which this kind of new media need, and the economic situation in Egypt.

2. The main difference between Germany and Egypt concerning the ownership of the different types of media outlets is that: in Egypt, the government owns and controls the main national media, however in Germany, the media can be owned and controlled by either the government, political parties, people or institutions, and political parties (private ownership). Consequently, this fundamental difference of media-ownership between both countries leads to differences in media political content with accordance to the ideologies and orientations of the people, the government, the political parties and the institutions.

3. Censorship of media content, particularly, the political aspects of it, by the government, applying legislatures that limit the freedom of press, arresting journalists and reporters, closing media institutions or stop the license that follow different orientations than the government and more, are reasons that influenced the Egyptians' political awareness. However, the freedom of expression in Germany has provided the Germans with the suitable conditions for a high political awareness.

4. There is no doubt that the lack of democracy in Egypt affected the Egyptians consumption of political content because for a long period, Egypt was under media blackout of what is really happening in the arena, which in turn influenced the Egyptians young people' political awareness.

5. As we will see in chapter six below, the results reveal the differences between the Egyptians and the Germans young people political participation and awareness without any fear from political violence or persecution by the government.

Generally, the whole system of regulation of media in Egypt (print or broadcast media) is geared toward ensuring government tight control with the result that it actively discourages media diversity, media freedom, independence and transparency. Media system, therefore, does not serve to guarantee the democratic transformation in post- Egypt revolution.

Chapter 5: Methods

The purpose of this chapter is to identify the methodology of the study and the method used for: data collection, measuring dependent and independent variables, determining reliability and validity of the instruments, and so on...

5.1. Sample

The survey was administered in Arabic and German, while the master questionnaire was developed in English. The survey was conducted between April and June 2010 at Minia University in Egypt and at Technical University of Dresden in Germany. A representative sample of 500 student respondents was conducted in each country. Representative sampling is a type of statistical sampling in which a researcher attempts to select individuals which are representative of a larger population. The author gathered the data used in this study from a representative sample of young people or university student's distributed among different institutes with accordance to the number of students in each institute, so to be able to extrapolate and generalize the results of this study on a larger group (i.e., young people). Without study a whole population or every single individual. Additionally, young people in both countries represent a large percentage of the population, also this strata of the society (young people) are more familiar with this kind of new media, the Internet, and social networking (Facebook, YouTube, Yahoo Messenger, etc.) more than other age groups.

In order to secure the validity of the questionnaire and that it is measuring the purposes it was developed for, the questionnaire was reviewed and evaluated by a number of academics and experts in the fields of mass communication, politics and sociology at German and Egyptian universities. In addition, a pre-test was conducted on a sample of 25 students in each university (i.e., 5.0% of sample size) to make sure that all questions are clear, understandable, personally and culturally relevant, attention-getting memorable and do able; moreover, to measure the time span of filling the questionnaire, which averaged between 10 to 15 minutes for all students.

The author used lists of total number of students in each university and their distribution among different institutes, departments and colleges in order to ensure the representation of the studied population. After that the sample was selected randomly from several departments representing different academic fields, distributed as follows; (A) Three departments of Engineering; 1- Electrical Engineering (26.8% German students, and 22.2% Egyptian students), 2- Civil Engineering (7.0% German students, and 6.2% Egyptian students) and 3- Architecture (15.0% German students, and 6.4 % Egyptian students). (B) Three departments of Humanities and Social

Science; 1- Sociology (11.6% German students, and 13.8 % Egyptian students), 2- History (19.2% German students, and 6.6% Egyptian students) and 3- Mass Communication (6.4% German students, and 20.6% Egyptian students). Finally, (C) three departments of Natural Science; 1- Mathematics (6.0% German students, and 7.0% Egyptian students), 2- Physics (4.8% German students, and 7.4 % Egyptian students), and 3- Chemistry (3.2% German students, and 9.8 % Egyptian students) (see Table 6.1). The sample was conducted from smaller sub-communities (Minia university and Technical University of Dresden) of both countries (Egypt and Germany), although both universities are local ones but are considered to be representatives for the group of young people in both countries sub area because they include students from varies areas in both countries.

Table 5.1 University student's sample in both countries

Institutes	TU Dresden		Minia University	
	Percentage	Number	Number	Percentage
Electrical Engineering	26.8	134	111	22.2
Civil Engineering	7.0	35	31	6.2
Architecture	15.0	75	32	6.4
Sociology	11.6	58	69	13.8
History	19.2	96	33	6.6
Mass Communication	6.4	32	103	20.6
Mathematics	6.0	30	35	7.0
Physics	4.8	24	37	7.4
Chemistry	3.2	16	49	9.8

5.2. Questionnaire design and development

Questionnaires are commonly used as practical tool for collecting information, providing structured, often numerical data (Cohen et al, 2007, p.317). Questionnaires normally include both closed-ended

items, in the present study the author encountered many political and legal problems in conducting the survey in Egypt because of the political nature of the questionnaire, which according to the Egyptian government is a taboo area of research in this time. The questionnaire employed open and closed ended items and was designed with accordance to the theoretical background, previous studies in this field, meetings with experts and professors in the fields of Political science such as Prof. Dr. Werner J. Patzelt - Technical University of Dresden, and Media studies, such as Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Donsbach and, Prof. Dr. Lutz M. Hagen - Technical University of Dresden, in addition to several meetings with the staff of Institute for Media and Communication From the same university. Furthermore, ten focus groups discussions were held at six colleges in two universities, Minia and TU Dresden located in Minia and Dresden. Each focus group contained five university student's that are interested in politics with a 10 minute time span for each discussion. A total of 50 (males and females) university student's participated in these discussions. These focus groups allow the researcher to study people in a more natural setting than a one-to-one interview.

The author attempted in each discussion to have a better understanding of the students' points of views and opinions regarding politics as general and participation in political acts or society organizations as particular, in addition the discussions included some questions about online political news, exposure to the internet and general media and more. In final format the questionnaire included 26 questions divided into three main parts; part one covered the subjects of Internet use; the amount of Internet use and general media, location of use and online political use. Part two; it included questions about civic activities, organizations, and the level of university students' participation in these organizations. Finally, part three; it included some questions to examine the effects of Internet usage on political awareness through measuring political participation, interest, discussion, and knowledge (see Appendix A, B, C). The questionnaire was applied as self administered or 'self-completion' meaning that the respondents filled in the questionnaire themselves.

5.3 Fieldwork and Data collection procedure

5.3.1 Dependent Variables

Political awareness as a dependent variable will be measured by testing the following variables: political interest, knowledge, and participation, in addition to generate the relationships between these political variables and political awareness, using an index that will be clarified in the following pages.

❖ **Political interest:**

In measuring political interest, participants were asked *“How interested they are in politics.* Additionally the participants were asked some questions about interesting in general politics.

❖ **Political discussion:**

The respondents were asked question and *“with whom they discuss political matters and the amount of this discussion “frequently, occasionally, or never”.*

❖ **Political knowledge:**

In order to measure political knowledge, survey participants were asked questions concerning structure and factual political knowledge “Who is the current prime minister/counselor in your country?” and “How many members of parliament/Federal Parliament are there in your country. Also, the respondents were asked questions about some national and international political elites and leaders who have been in the news recently, whether they know them or not?, such as: Barack Obama, Hillary Clinton, etc.... Moreover, participants were asked an open question about their general political knowledge about last year’s events: “From your point of view, what was the most important political issue that concerned national/international public opinion in 2009?”

❖ **Political participation:**

Political participation was measured by asking participants questions about their participation in various political and society organizations as follows:

“I would like you to write, for each one of these political actions that people can take, whether you have done any of these things, whether you might do it or would never under any circumstances do it, for instance; sign a petition, write or call an elected official, join boycotts for specific products, attend peaceful demonstrations, display a button, yard sign, bumper sticker, participate in protest or rally, or support candidate, run for public office, vote in elections, talk to others on politics, work for or donated money to a party, candidate or interest group, attend political meetings and some other political action or vote in an election”. In addition, questions about voting in national elections: “Did you vote in your country’s recent elections?, and “If there were a national election tomorrow, would you participate?”

❖ **Participation in civic activity**

Civic activities were measured as a part of political participation by asking the respondents: “Are you an active member, an inactive member, or not a member of one or several of the following organizations?”, such as: Religious, Sport, Art, Music, Educational, Environmental, Humanitarian or Charitable and Consumer organizations, Labor unions, Political party, Professional association, and any other organization they can add as an open category.

5.3.2. Independent variable (IV's)

❖ **Media access and exposure:** In order to tap media access and exposure the respondents were asked the following questions about general media use and the amount of use: *“People use different sources to learn what is going on in their country and the world. Which kind of the following media do you use?”* The answers were coded on a three point scale (always, sometimes, and never): including statements about all kinds of media: Local newspapers, national newspapers, news broadcasts on local radio, and so on... Moreover, respondent were asked; *“Did your use of any of the following media (TV, radio, Internet.etc.) Increase, decrease, or stay the same in the last few years? “Yesterday, did you get news from (TV, radio, daily newspaper, and Internet websites) or you didn’t get any news yesterday?”* The participants were also asked the question of *“How much do you enjoy keeping up with news - a lot, some, not much, or not at all?”* In order to measure their consumption of news.

❖ Access and exposure to Political news on the Internet :

To tap the respondents’ access and exposure to political news on the internet, they were asked questions: about *“Which kind of the following media do you use when you need to get more details about current political issues? This question coded on a three points scale (always, sometimes, and never): including different types of media: Local newspapers, national newspapers, news broadcasts on local radio, Internet news sites, and so on....*

Also, the respondents were asked about the amount and the location of Internet use, whether at (home, university, Internet café, library, or other location, for instance mobile device „or „smart phone“) in the statement *“How often do you access the Internet and where?”* By using a 7 points scale as follows: 1 = multiple times per day, 2 = about once per day, 3 = 2-6 times per week, 4 = about once per week, 5 = more than once per month, 6 = at least than once per month or 7 = never. In addition, they were asked: “When you do go online, what are the online sources that you use the most often when you are looking for political news or information on current events? Are they ‘TV news website, major newspaper websites, news from Google, Yahoo, etc...., social network news,

CNN website, Fox news website, Aljazeera news website, news from journalist blogs, online news discussion blogs, news from friends or others.’ The answers were coded as 1 = chosen and 2 = not chosen.

Then, the respondents were asked specific questions about political news on the Internet, as follows: ‘Do you think that political news on the Internet are given too much coverage, too little coverage or the right amount of coverage about current events,’ also, ‘how much confidence do you have that the political news on the Internet are giving the public an accurate picture of what is happening in all over the world?, a great deal of confidence, a fair amount of confidence, not too much confidence, no confidence at all, or don’t know.

5.4. Data analysis

The researcher noted that several studies concerning political awareness both in Arabic, English or some other countries measured it by using some questions concerning political knowledge or just participation. In this current work the researcher tries to create an index including some questions about political knowledge, participation, discussion, interest and voting in elections in one scale in order to measure political awareness, and to design my own scale about measuring political awareness, thus becoming the first scale in our field to measure political awareness (see appendixes A, B, C). The researcher also noted that one commonality in the rich body of several researches on political participation studying political participation, knowledge, and interest by coding the answer in as (0= No participation) and (1= participation, and subsequently sum up or compute the average of the scores (Eveland & Dylko, 2007; Nisbet & Scheufele, 2004).

This study attempts to disentangle the concept of political awareness, which has been conceptualized and operationalized in four different steps. In other words, the measurement of political awareness concept in the current study took place in four dimensions:

(1) Firstly, an index including *political interest* (questions 14, 25, see appendix) recoded as new variables to be in the same scales between (0= not at all interested or never; 1= not very interested or occasionally; 2= frequently or somewhat interest. 3= very interested). The results show that the two groups are quite similar and no differences in their political interest exist. This means both groups retain the main steps for political awareness.

(2) The second dimension was *political discussion* (question 26, 1= yes; 0= no). Our results suggested that there are only small differences between the two groups; the mean and SD are quite

similar with no big differences in their political discussion. This, combined with interest in politics, means both groups demonstrate the main two first steps for political awareness (interested in politics and discussion with others about political events).

(3) Third dimension was gathering all the questions concerning *political knowledge* (questions 19/20/21/24, see appendix C) in one index after re-coding to be in the same scales between (0= not correct or no answer; 1= correct or know the answer; 2= fully correct). The results suggested that the factual political knowledge among Egyptian's higher than German's.

(4) The last dimension was an index including all questions about *political participation* (questions 15, 22, 23), also after re-coding some variables to be in the same scales between (0= no or never; 2= done or yes; and 1= might do). Results showed that the German university student's' scores in political participation were generally higher than Egyptian scores. In addition, the result suggests differences on the level of their turnout proved to be higher among Germans than Egyptians. These are four fundamental dimensions to determine political awareness. At the end, a single index includes the above four indexes into one measure of political awareness. As I wrote in the theoretical part, the different dimensions of political awareness do not have an equal weight from a normative point of view. For instance, the person who participates in demonstrations, votes in elections, or any activities or forms of political participation cannot receive the same points as somebody who only talks with others in politics or is just interested in reading some news about current political events. In addition, there is no pure statistical way to deal with this issue. Therefore, I have taken normative decisions as: All answers for political participation will be $\times 3$, knowledge $\times 2$, interest and political discussion $\times 1$) to format political awareness without measurement error.

5.5. Validity and reliability of measures

❖ 5.5.1 Validity:

Validity determines whether the research truly measures what it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research objective? (Golafshani, 2003, p. 10). In the present study and after completing the preparation of study instruments trustees' the validity procedures have been measured based on the opinions of the experts. According to the recommendations of the reviewers, some adjustments regarding meaning, accuracy, language clarity, and functionality; were made,

in addition to adding or deleting some items, until we had the final shape of the questionnaire that was ready for fieldwork.

❖ 5.5.2 Reliability:

Reliability in quantitative research refers to the ability of a measure to produce consistent results. Unreliable of measures exists if all or the least number of items are unreliable (Cohen, et al. 2007, 146-148). Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure. A test is considered reliable if we get the same result repeatedly ⁽⁴⁴⁾. Carmines & Zeller (1979) define reliability as ‘the extent to which a measuring procedure delivers the same results on repeated trials’ (Musiałowska, 2008, p. 130). According to Joppe (2000), he defined the reliability as: “The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable” (Golafshani, 2003. p. 10).

Unfortunately, it is impossible to calculate reliability exactly, but there several different ways to estimate reliability. In the present study to gauge reliability, the questionnaire administered twice at two different points in time (by administering a test twice at two different points in time. This type of reliability assumes that there will be no change in the quality or construct being measured. The time between two test was 15 days). This kind of reliability is used to assess the consistency of a questionnaire across time. In additional, this type of reliability assumes that there will be no change in the quality or construct being measured. “Test-retest reliability is best used for things that are stable over time” ⁽⁴⁵⁾. The correlation between the two rating after calculate indicated that the raters agree 8 out of 10 times, the questionnaire has an 80% inter-rater reliability rate.

Moreover, questionnaire data were entered into SPSS, and was checked by Cronbach’s alpha used to determine internal reliability which indicated a high level of reliability of 0.85. Thus the questionnaire satisfied all the conditions of stability (reliability) and was ready for fieldwork implementation. Concerning the conceptual understanding test, Cronbach’s alpha was adopted to examine the reliability of the test considering that 0.7 was identified by Cohen et al. (2007, 506), to be the minimum acceptable reliability value.

⁴⁴ Source: <http://psychology.about.com/od/researchmethods/f/reliabilitydef.htm>

⁴⁵ Source: <http://psychology.about.com/od/researchmethods/f/reliabilitydef.htm>

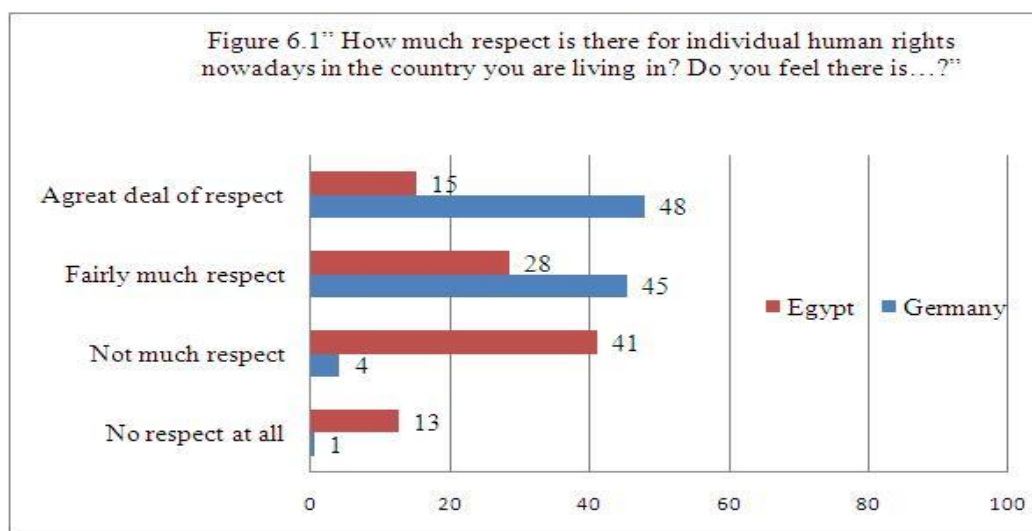
Chapter 6: Results Comparing Egyptian and Germany university student's

6.1 Political and social conditions of media use.

6.1.1 Political freedom.

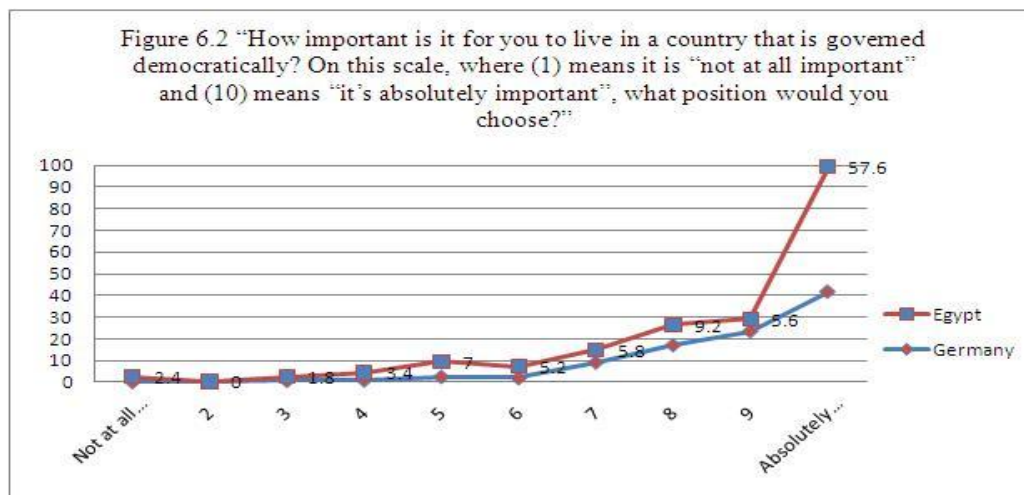
University student's were asked a question about "How much respect is there for individual human rights nowadays in the country you are living in? Do you feel there is a great deal of respect, a fair amount of respect, not much respect, or no respect at all?" The answers were completely different in both countries:

Consistent with the human rights level in Egypt, 41.0% reported that they are dissatisfied (not much respect), 12.6% announced that there is no respect at all for human rights in their country, with 28.4% reporting a fair amount of respect, and finally 15.4% sensing a great deal of respect. Thus, more than half of the Egyptian population sample is dissatisfied with the amount of freedom and the level of human rights in Egypt. In contrast, more than 93.0% of Germany's population sample indicated that they are satisfied about the level of human rights in their country, with 48.0% answering "a great deal of respect", 45.4% a fairly amount of respect, a few of 4.25% answered "not much respect" and 0.6% reported "no respect at all" (See Figure 6.1, and for more information see Table E.15).



Another interesting aspect of comparison between Germany and Egypt referred to the level of democracy, the political environment, and the level of human rights, which are very important as a motivation for young people to participate in political processes without any panic or hesitation. To investigate the role of the political environment in promoting more participation in politics, the

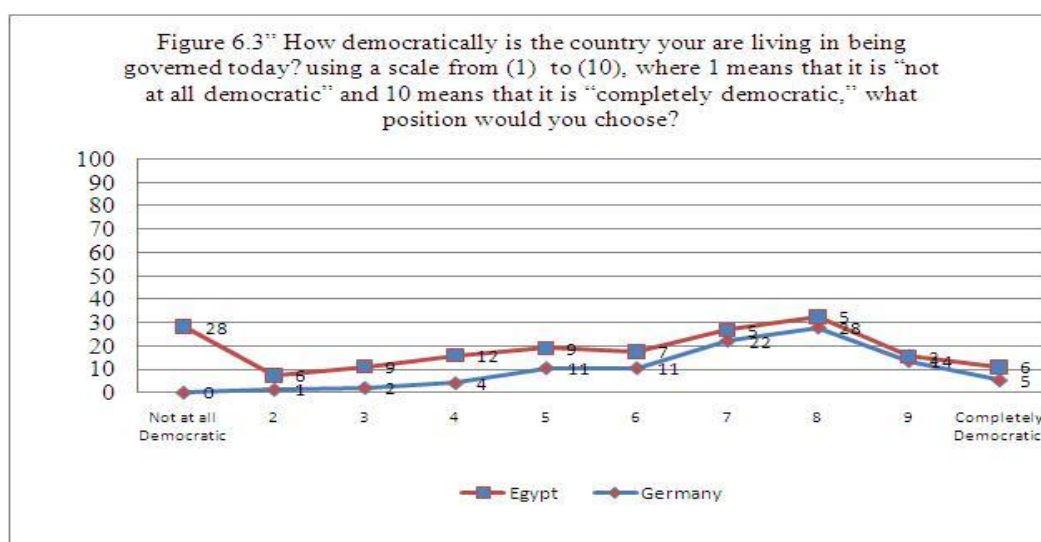
participants were asked the question “how important is it for you to live in a country that is governed democratically?” The answers of this question were measured on a scale from 1 to 10, where (1) means that it is “not at all important” and (10) means that “it is absolutely important”. The results indicate that university student’s in both countries with proportions of 49.0% among Germans, and 58.0% among Egyptians answered that it is " Absolutely important" for them to live in a democratic country; clearly this percentage was higher among Egyptian's young people than Germany's young people because of the repression and deprivation of political freedom the Egyptians are facing in their lives. This result was confirmed by the Egyptian revolution in 2011 against the dictatorship and their call for change and freedom. In the same context, only 0.2% Germans and 2.4% Egyptians said that it is not at all important to live in a democratic country (see Figure 6.2, and for more information see Table E.13).



Additionally, the participants were asked a question in the statement “how democratic is the country you are living in”, on a 10 points scale where (1) means “not at all democratic” and 10 stands for “completely democratic”. The aim of this question was to describe or evaluate the level of democracy and freedom that young people experience in their countries which related to participation in politics and it’s very important while comparing the democratic system in both countries. The results confirm the author’s prediction about the relation between the political environment in Egypt and university students’ participation in politics. In this question the author divided the scale into three groups: **(1) high level of democratic** (including points from 7 to 10), **(2) the medium** (including points from 5 and 6) and **(3) low level of democratic** (points from 1 to 4).

On the one hand, most Germans university students’ answers were in the first group (high level of democracy), fully 69.0% of Germans tended to describe their country as democratic, comparing with only 17.0% of Egyptians in this level. On the other hand, a higher percentage of Egyptians'

answers were in group three (low level of democracy or not at all democratic). The results reveal that only 8.0% of the Germans described their country as being not at all a democratic country, whereas this number has increased dramatically among Egyptian students, with 55.0% saying “not at all democratic” and expressing a feeling of lack of freedom. An interesting connection can be found when we link these results together, which reflects the deprivation of democracy in Egypt, and the level of political participation for young people in Egypt, which also related to our main concept in the current study” political awareness (see Figure 6.3 and for more information see appendix E.14).



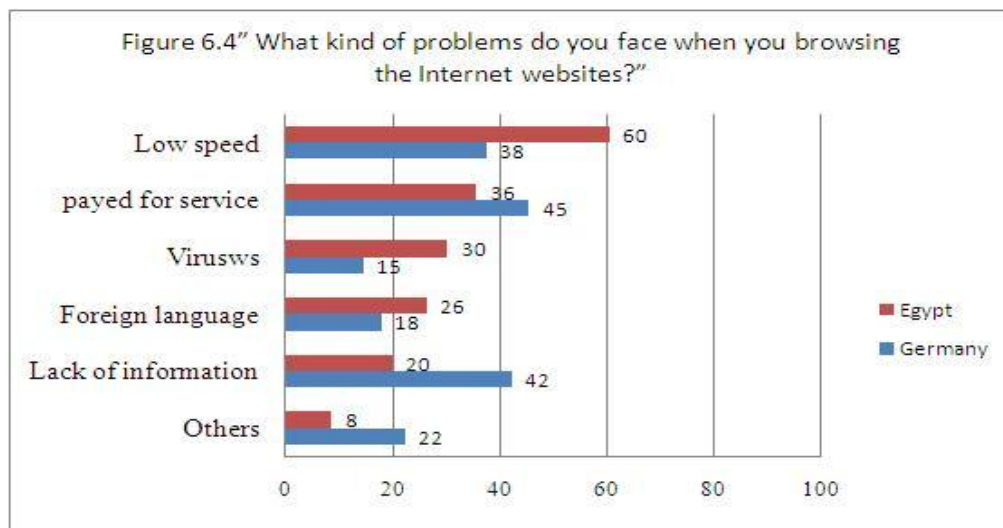
Unquestionably, we should link between the results of questions 16, 17 and 18 (see appendix B and C) about the level of democracy and human rights as intervening variables, and the results political awareness. **The results indicate that the high level of democracy and human rights is positively related to political awareness among young people.** These conclusions were very clear and evident when comparing between the German and Egyptian university student’s political awareness. The results indicate that level of democracy is associated with university student’s political awareness in both countries ($r=0.13$, $p<0.005$).

The results also reveal that German student’s participate and awareness about politics more than Egyptians, but this fact has changed completely after the revolution of the Egyptian citizens on January 25th 2011 which will hopefully bring about greater freedom and more democratic system in Egypt. This appeared to be true in the massive attendance and turnout of the Egyptian people in the last polling regarding changing the constitution in March 19th, 2011. In the recent polling Egyptian turnout reach to 42.0%, and 62% turnout in the recent Egyptian parliament election, this change never happened before in Egyptian election history.

6.1.2 Technical access to internet

The respondents were asked a question about the problems they face while using Internet websites. In Germany the biggest three problems facing young people when surfing the Internet were: “fees for the service of some websites” with 45.4%, followed by the “lack of information on the Internet” 42.2%, then the “low speed of Internet or system hang” 37.6%. While the main top three problems with accessing the Internet websites among Egyptians were: “the low speed of the Internet or system hangs” with 60.4%, followed by “fees” 35.6%, and then “virus attacks” with 30.2%.

In addition, students were asked an open question about other problems they faced while surfing the Internet. 22.2% among Germans comparing with 8.4% among Egyptians said they faced problems such as spam mail and unwanted advertisement websites, etc (see Figure 6.4, and for more information see table E.7).



6.1.3 The digital divide

The digital divide concept refers to the gap between individuals, households, businesses and geographic areas at different socio-economic levels with regard both to their opportunities to access information and communications technologies (ICT's), and to their use of the Internet for a wide variety of activities. The digital gab also includes the imbalance in physical access to the internet and new technology (for instance infra structure for the internet and internet speed, or censorship of government for some websites), and the resources and skills (individuals skills or level of education) needed to effectively participate as a digital citizen. Additionally, "knowledge divide" reflects the access of various social groupings to information and knowledge, typically gender, income, race, and location (urban or rural). Moreover the term of digital divide refers to differences

in access between countries in regards to the Internet and its means of information flow (Patricia, 2003).

The author asked question to link or find the relationship between the amount using the Internet and political news and socioeconomic status, the respondents in both countries were asked the question “Do you have any type of personal computer, including laptop, at home?” **The answers for this question show the gap between the two countries in the level of economic situation;** also differences in household income for each of the students’ families have great effects on using the Internet through their own computer or notebook. Nearly 96.0% of Germans have their own computer, comparing with 61.0% of Egyptians.

Additionally, in the current study, it is very important to indicate this digital gap between Germany and Egypt and its' effects in using political news on the Internet among young people. As shown in (Table 6.5), when respondents were asked the question about "which of the following activities do you usually participate in on the Internet?", they said, using the email was the most popular form of online activity with 56.0% of German student’s reporting that they do it multiple times per day, comparing with 22.4% among Egyptians. A little less than a third of Egyptian young people reported that they use the Internet for college or university courses 2-6 times per week, comparing with 42.8% among Germans reporting that they do this multiple times per day.

Interestingly, about half of Germans university student’s said that they never used the Internet for playing games, comparing with about one third of the Egyptians. Searching for goods or services on the Internet had 40.2% of Egyptian university student’s said that they never perform this task. The least popular activity, reported as “never” done, was chatting; 34.4% among Egyptians and 13.6% among Germans.

	Egypt									Germany								
Online activities	Multiple per day	About once per day	2-6 times per week	once per week	More 1 per month	At least 1 per month	Never	Mean	SD	Multiple per day	About once per day	2-6 times per week	once per week	More 1 per month	At least 1 month	Never	Mean	SD
Chatting	21.2	0.0	14.4	11.2	3.0	7.2	34.4	4.47	2.40	40.2	16.2	14.4	4.2	4.0	6.2	13.6	2.88	2.18
Use E mail	22.4	0.2	22.0	10.8	6.2	7.0	24.8	4.04	2.27	56.0	23.8	15.2	2.2	1.0	0.4	0.4	1.70	0.98
Visit online news websites	14.4	0.0	28.6	14.8	8.4	9.6	16.8	4.07	1.96	18.8	27.0	25.8	12.4	5.8	4.6	4.0	2.89	1.57
Searching for goods or services	7.4	0.0	10.8	9.4	11.4	11.8	40.2	5.35	1.91	9.2	8.6	35.4	21.2	12.2	9.4	2.2	3.57	1.44
Playing games	13.2	0.0	22.0	10.2	7.0	9.8	29.8	4.59	2.14	9.6	6.8	8.2	6.6	6.6	13.4	47.4	5.27	2.13
College or university courses	17.0	0.0	28.6	14.6	9.8	7.2	15.8	3.91	1.97	42.8	24.6	22.6	5.4	1.4	0.8	1.0	2.03	1.18
Listening to music	17.2	0.0	19.2	6.6	10.4	10.6	26.4	4.44	2.22	29.0	13.2	22.8	10.4	4.0	6.2	13.2	3.19	2.06
Others	5.8	0.0	8.4	3.8	4.0	3.8	54.6	5.86	1.91	22.6	13.0	14.4	9.0	3.2	2.4	7.8	2.94	1.93

Table 6.5 “Which of the following activities do you usually participate in on the Internet?”

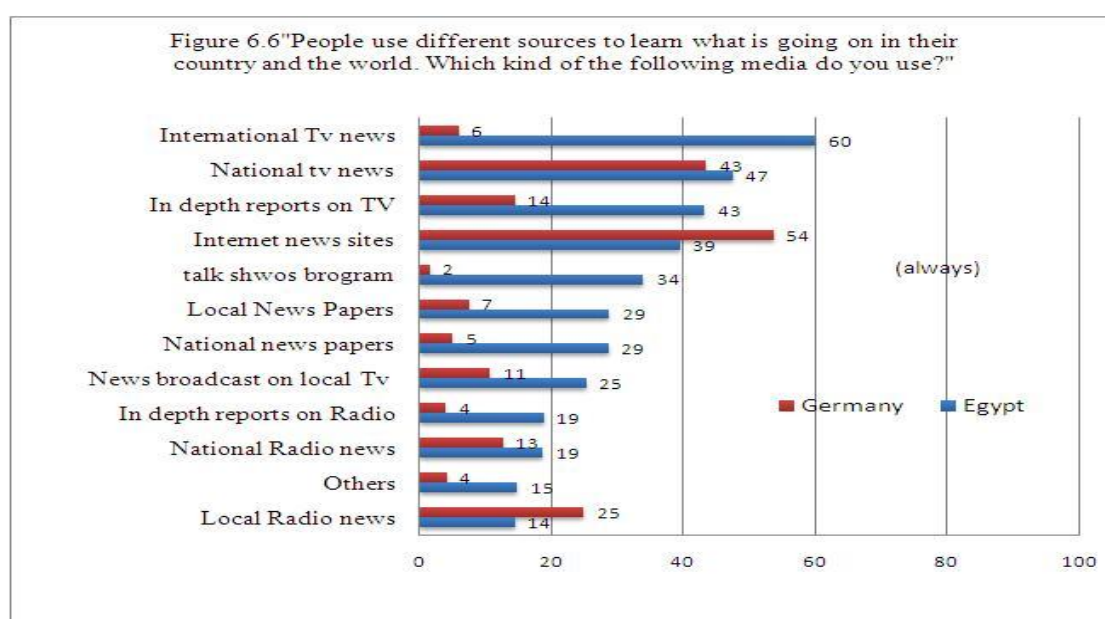
6.2. General media exposure

Changing demographics, lifestyles, business trends and, most of all, technologies have fundamentally altered the way we get the news. There are many more ways to get the news these days than before, and as a consequence Germans and Egyptians university student's are spending much more of their time with the news. Digital platforms are playing a larger role in news consumption, and they seem to be more than making up for modest declines in the audience for traditional platforms. The next figure (6.6) indicates popular usage of digital and traditional media among university student's in Germany and Egypt on a 3 points scale (always, sometime, and never). The respondents were asked statements about from where they usually get the news covering what happens in their countries and all over the world.

As shown in (Figure 6.6, and Table E.1 see appendixes), the author compares the proportion of young people in Egypt and Germany concerning the most popular news sources used to learn and keep up-to-date with local and global events. In this paragraph the author mentioned some sources in both countries as the following. For the Egyptian university student's, a majority of 60.0% of them said that they always follow "news broadcast in international TV channels", followed by "news broadcast on national TV channels" with 47.4%. The Egyptian university student's said that they always got news from "depth reports on TV" with 43.2%, and, finally, 39.4% they always get news from "Internet websites". **These results suggests that the Egyptian university student's always get their news from traditional media platforms and they use international news TV channels, such as BBC Arabic and Aljazeera more than national TV more than internet websites.**

These results are in sharp contrast with those from German university student's who firstly use Internet websites to get information about what happens in their country; the internet as source of information was the most popular form of media use among them with 53.6.0% followed by "news broadcast on national TV" 43.4%. Interestingly, the local radio news still ranks as one of the top sources for news among German student's with 24.8% obtaining their news about what happens in their country and the world and 14.4% answering with "in-depth reports on TV" as their source of information. The least popular news sources, reported as never used, were talk show programs, with 68.6% among Germans and 31.6% among Egyptians saying that they never seek information from these sources. "News broadcasts on local TV" received very low percentage of 46.2 % among Germans and a little less than one third of Egyptians reporting that they never watch them (Figure 6.6, and for more information see Table E.1 see appendixes).

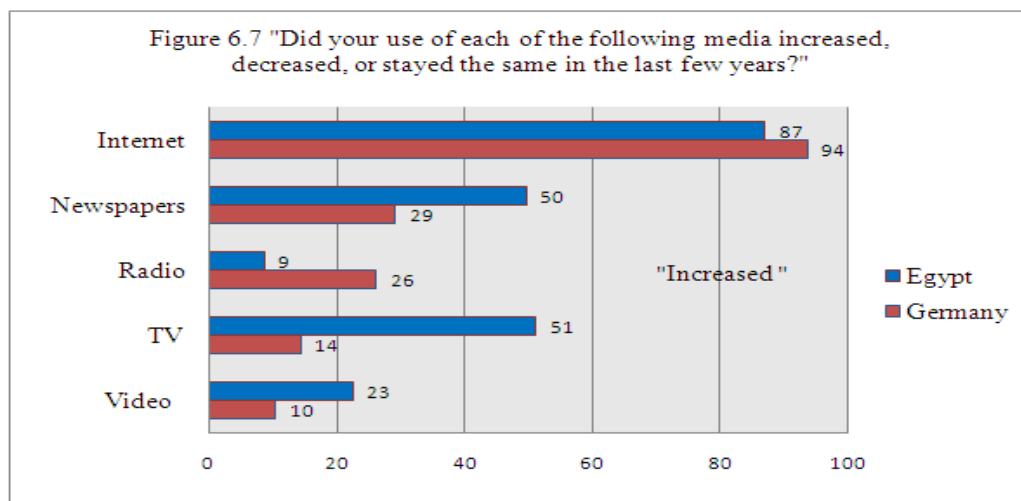
The results of Pearson's correlation reveal that there is a positive relationship between young people exposure and gathering news about what's happen in their countries from different type of news media and their political awareness in both countries. In Germany, the strongest relationships among all news media sources with political awareness were exposure to "national newspapers" ($r=0.21$, $p<0.005$), followed by "online news" ($r=0.17$, $p<0.005$). Differences in Egypt, the strongest relationships or influence among all new media sources with political awareness were large with "talk shows programs" ($r=0.25$, $p<0.005$), and "international TV news viewing" ($r=0.12$, $p<0.05$). Accordingly, these results prove that Germans young people rely on national media and online news as top sources of information, but Egyptians are more dependent on international TV rather than national media.



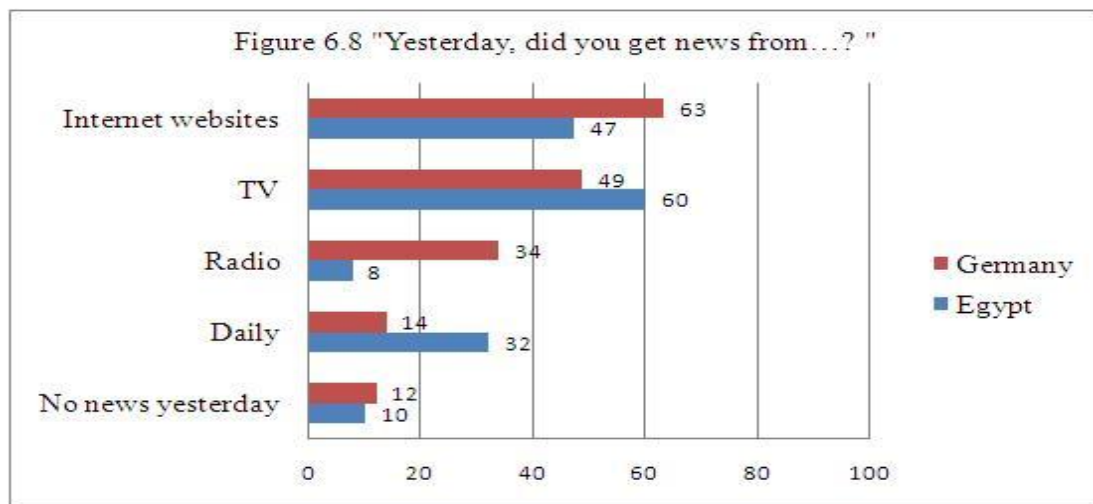
6.2.1 Traditional or new media platform?

The author is interested in better understanding the position of Internet among traditional media, in particular if the use of the Internet and traditional media by young people in the last few years has increased, decreased or remained stable. Figure 6.7 shows that the Internet has a high position among traditional and print media. Consequently, Internet usage has increased; 93.6% of German student's and 87.0% among Egyptian students said that their use of Internet as a main source of information has increased. Followed by newspapers usage also has increased; 29.0% of German student's and 50.0% of Egyptian student's said that their use of newspapers as a main source of information has increased. This means that the use of traditional media formats (TV and newspapers) in Egypt is still increasing; about half of Egyptian university student's indicated that their use of TV and newspaper increased in recent years.

Generally, The results reveal that the proportion of Egyptian and German university student's who get news from traditional media platforms (television, radio and print media) has been decreasing in the last few years compared with news from online websites, which has increased in both countries. This result stands in contrast to Germany and USA, where newspaper readership is on decline, the decreasing in the newspapers readership in the United States has been declining since the 1990s. 30.0% of American young people are less likely to read newspapers (Lee & Wei, 2009, p.9), and this differences may be due to the fact that newspapers and TV channels are available everyday for free and without charge at the university library and campus. In short, instead of replacing traditional news platforms, Egyptian and German university student's are increasingly integrating new technologies into their news consumption habits. Moreover, Egyptian and German university student's said that they got news from both digital and traditional sources (For more information see appendix E.2).



Moreover, as will be seen below the author examines the news consumption among university student's by asking "Yesterday, did you get news from..?" the results suggest that two out of three **60.2% of the Egyptian university student's reported that they watched TV news yesterday**, compared with 48.8% among German students. Instead, the proportion of German student's who went online for news yesterday to get news 63.4% was higher than that of Egyptian students 47.4%. Also, the results show that 32.2% of Egyptian young people read the daily newspaper compared with 14.0% of Germans. Radio's role has decreased among university student's as a source of information in both countries with an average of 12.2%. Besides, 10.4% among Egyptians said they had not received any news yesterday (See Figure 6.8 and for more information see Appendix Table E.3).



6.2.2 Where and when do young people use the Internet?

One of the most interesting aspects of the comparison between Germany and Egypt related to where and when they use the Internet. The respondents were asked the question of “how often they access the Internet and where?” with a 7 points scale starting from (1) “multiple times per day” to (7) “never use” (see Table 6.9). The results reveal that, **in general, Germans students use the Internet – whether at home, university, or library – more than Egyptians. In particular, the high percentage of Germans using the Internet at home (multiple times per day) reached 88.4% compared to only 31.4% on the Egyptian side.**

On the one hand, the percentages of Egyptians using the Internet in places other than home (e.g., university, and library,) were very low, however, the results proved to be higher than use in Internet cafés, which highlights the fact that Egyptians lack the financial capabilities to have Internet in their homes. On the other hand, 87.0% of Germans said that they ‘never’ used the Internet at Internet cafés; and that they use the Internet in other places, for instance, at the university or in the library. **Consequently, these results emphasize the effect of lack in economic capabilities on Internet usage, which in turn affects individuals’ ability to get access to political information and participation in other social and political aspects.**

	Egypt									Germany								
	Multiple per day	About once per day	2-6 times per week	once per week	More 1 per month	At least 1 month	Never	Mean	SD	Multiple per day	About once per day	2-6 times per week	once per week	More 1 per month	At least 1 month	Never	Mean	SD
Home	31.4	0.0	15.0	7.8	1.8	6.0	34.2	4.07	2.6	88.4	6.6	3.2	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.6	1.1	0.6
Internet Café	8.2	0.0	13.4	18.8	9.0	10.4	35.4	5.0	1.9	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.2	1.4	6.4	86.8	6.8	0.9
University	5.8	0.0	13.2	8.6	6.8	11.0	46.8	5.5	1.9	15.0	6.0	16.8	14.0	11.4	19.8	14.4	4.2	2.0
Library	2.6	0.0	6.8	3.8	3.4	7.8	66.2	6.2	1.5	2.4	2.0	10.4	9.8	14.6	23.0	34.2	5.5	1.6
Other location	6.4	0	3.8	2	0.6	2.0	67.2	6.2	1.8	4.6	1.6	8.2	8.8	8.4	16.0	46.2	5.6	1.8

Table 6.9 How often do you access the Internet and where?

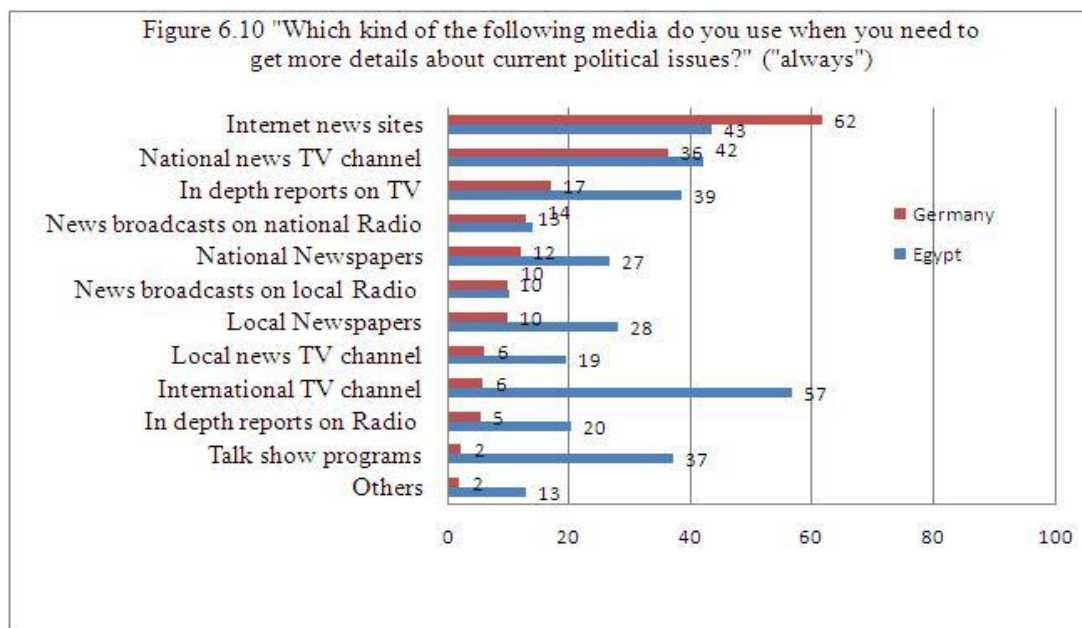
These results agree with Abdulla (2007), who found that in Arabic countries almost three-quarters of respondents 74.8% reported that they connect to the Internet a few times per day. Respondents who connect to the Internet once a day accounted for 10.0% and those who connect a few times a week, but not every day, accounted for 12.3%. Just 0.7% of respondents reported that they connect to the Internet once a week and only 0.4% said they connect less than once a week (Abdulla, 2007). These results are little bit different when we compare with high level of socioeconomic status in high economic country such as Germany or USA, for instance, according to PEW Internet “teens and social network” 2009, (93.0%) of teens 12-17 go online, 89.0% of online teens go online from home, 77.0% of teens go online at school, 71.0% go online from friends or relatives house, 60.0% go online from the library, 66.0% of households with teens go online via broadband, 22.0% via dial up, and 63.0% of online teens go online daily (Pew internet, April 2009).

6.3 Exposures to political media content

In this part the author mentions the university students’ exposure to both traditional and online political content in order to examine the role of political content available on traditional and new media in promoting political awareness. The results indicate that the Internet is slowly closing in on international television as Egyptians’ main source of national and international political news. **56.6% of the Egyptians' young people said that they always get most of their political news about national and international political issues from international TV channels**, and 38.0% said they sometimes get political news from international TV channels, followed by 43.4% who said they always get political news from the Internet. The results are slightly different among Germany’s university student’s, the hallmark of **Germany’s university student’s 61.8% of whom said they get most of their news about current national and international political issues from Internet news websites**. so the Internet is now the second-most common mentioned source of political news, followed by national TV channels with 36.4%. Consequently, international news television and Internet news remains the most widely used sources for national and international news among Egyptians, but Internet news and national TV channels are the most important source among Germans.

Unfortunately in Egypt, the level of exposure to national media is often less than online and international media. This indicates that Egyptians do not fully gets their news about politics from national media only, 19.4 of them gets news from local national TV in their country, followed by news about politics from Internet websites and international channels such as Aljazeera, BBC Arabic, or El Arabia. In addition, more than half of the proportion in the two countries said that they

never use radio as their source of national and international news; this suggests that the use of radio in recent years has decreased among young people as a source of news. Also one-third of the sample population in Egypt and Germany never use local and national newspaper as the main source to get information about politics. In the end, few students 2.0% among Germans and 13% among Egyptian said that they use mobile Internet to get news (see Figure 6.10, and for more information Appendix E.5).



The results of Pearson's correlation reveal that there is a positive relationship between university students' exposure to political news in different type of news media and political awareness in both countries. In Germany, the strongest relationships among all media sources with political awareness were "online political news" ($r=0.25$, $p<0.005$) followed by "national newspaper" ($r=0.22$, $p<0.005$). However, in Egypt, the strongest relationships among all media sources with political awareness were "online political news" ($r=0.24$, $p<0.005$), and "talk shows Programs" and "international TV news" ($r=0.18$, $p<0.05$).

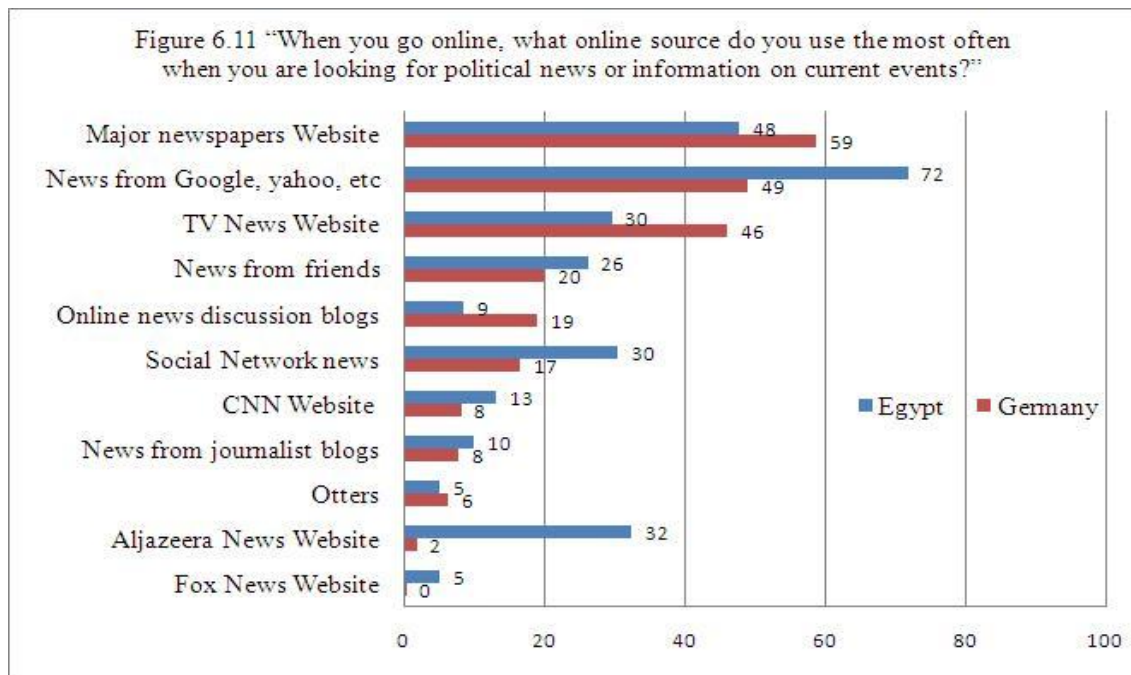
6.3.1 Accessing political information online

The participants were asked question "When you go online, what online source do you use the most often when you are looking for political news or information on current events?" More than half 58.8% of German university student's and nearly half 47.8% of Egyptian university student's said that they regularly obtain information about political news from a major online newspapers websites, and nearly of this follow news from TV website with 64.0% among Germans, and 29.6% of Egyptians said that they use TV websites to obtain information about political news;

Comparatively, more than twice of this percentage 71.8% from Egyptian said that they get news from Yahoo, Google, Masrawy, etc. which is the highest percentage for news source among Egyptian student's. The Internet has now become an important source of political news for young people, as well as the role of social networking sites such as MySpace, Facebook, Skype and Yahoo messenger. Fully 30.4% of those who use Internet among Egyptian university student's said that they get political news from the social networks, which proved to be more than German university student's 16.6%.

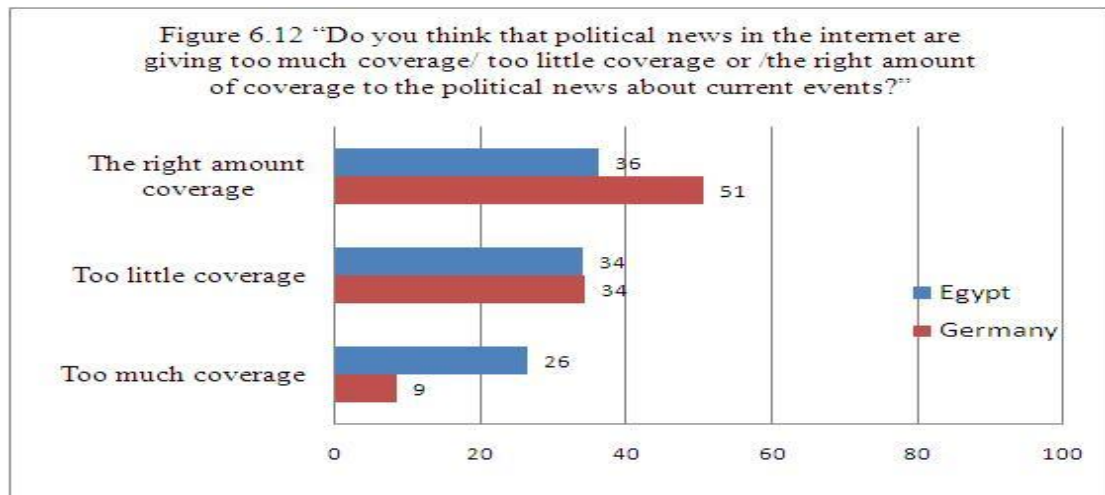
By contrast, the proportion of Egyptian and German university student's who said that they regularly learn about political news from Internet TV channels such as Fox News, CNN, and Aljazeera websites is quite low (the first channel website is Aljazeera website with a percentage of 32.4 % among Egyptians compared with 1.8% among Germans, mainly because this channel broadcasts its' news in Arabic, followed by CNN 13.2% of Egyptians and 8.2% of Germans, then Fox News at the lower end 5.2% of Egyptians and 0.4% of Germans (see Figure 6.11, and for more information see Table E.6). If we link between the results in table (E.6) with the results of table E.1 and table E.5 see Appendixes, we will notice that the sample of Egyptian students consumes more news from Internet websites and international channels than from local and national media, most likely due to the journalistic freedom and lack of censorship. And therefore they can find more information about political and current issues in their country and worldwide in such these sources than national media that is controlled by the government.

The results of Pearson's correlation reveal that there is a positive relationship between young people exposure and attention to political news in different type of news media with political awareness in both countries. In Germany, the strongest relationships among all media sources with political awareness were "internet political news" ($r=0.25$, $p<0.005$) followed by "national newspaper" ($r=0.22$, $p<0.005$). However, in Egypt, the strongest relationships among all media sources with political awareness were "internet political news" ($r=0.24$, $p<0.005$), and "talk shows Programs" and "international TV news" ($r=0.18$, $p<0.05$).



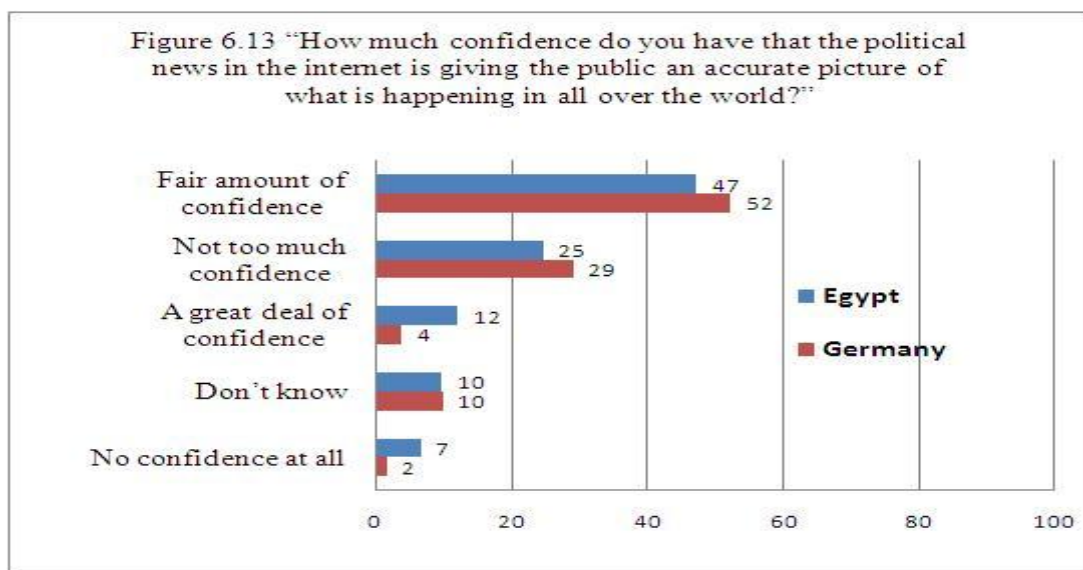
6.3.2. The amount of online coverage of political news

The author asked this question: “Do you think that political news on the Internet is given “too much coverage”, “too little coverage”, or “the right amount of coverage to current political issues?”” in order to know if online political news deals with news' stories in more details than traditional media. In other words, the author wants to indicate if online users of political news can completely depend on online news as an alternative media or not? The results reveal that about one in four 26.4% of Egyptians university student’s said that political news about political issues or current events are covered on the Internet in more details than traditional media “too much coverage”, comparing with only 8.6% of Germans saying so. While the Internet has devoted considerable coverage to politics, most Egyptians and Germans see the coverage as excessive. A majority of 50.6% of Germans agreed that political news on the Internet have given “the right amount of coverage” comparing with one third 36.2% of Egyptians who have the same opinion. Besides, the total number of the study population who agree that political news on the Internet is given “too little coverage’ was limited and quiet similar among Egyptians and Germans with 43.0%, this means A bit more than three in ten of the study population described the coverage of online political news as “too little coverage” (See Figure 6.12, for more information see Table E.8).



6.3.3 Confidence and accurate picture of online political news

The participants were asked the question of “how much confidence do they have that the political news on the Internet is giving the public an accurate picture (details) of what is happening in their countries and all over the world”. Only 3.8% of the German sample reported that online political news is giving “a great deal of confidence”, this number increased among Egyptians to fully 12.0% said that political news on the Internet gives “a great deal of confidence”. Moreover, about half of the study samples (47.2% among Egyptians and 52.2% Germans) stated that political news on the Internet are giving “a fair amount of confidence” and an accurate picture of what is happening. But 29.0% of Germans and 24.6% of Egyptians said that political news on the Internet gives “not too much confidence”, and finally, 1.6% of Germans and 6.6% of Egyptians said that political news on the Internet gives “no confidence at all”. Finally, nearly 10.0% of the sample responded that they “do not know” (see Figure 6.13, and for more information see table E.9).

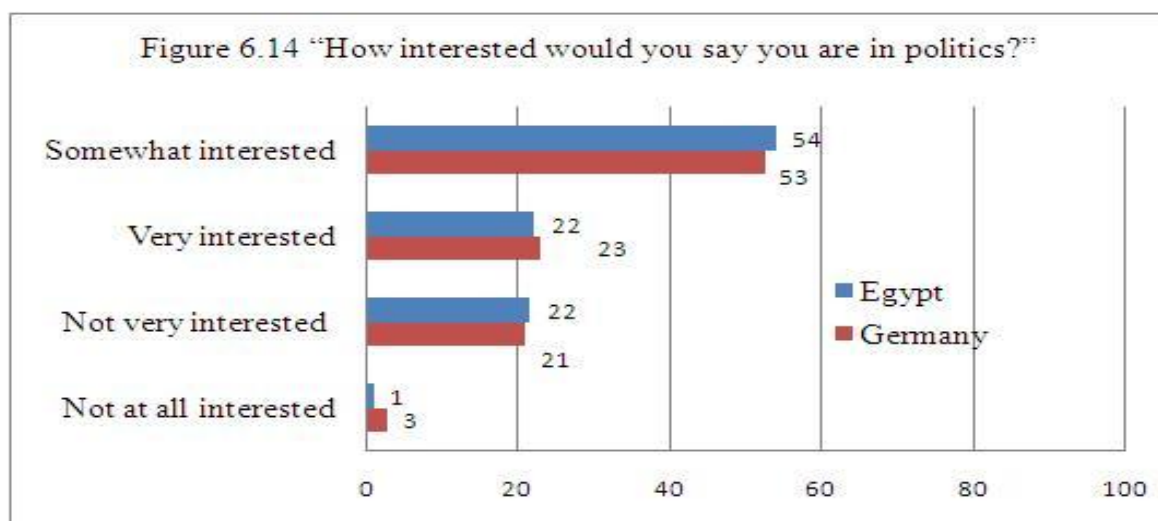


6.4 Political awareness

6.4.1 Political interest

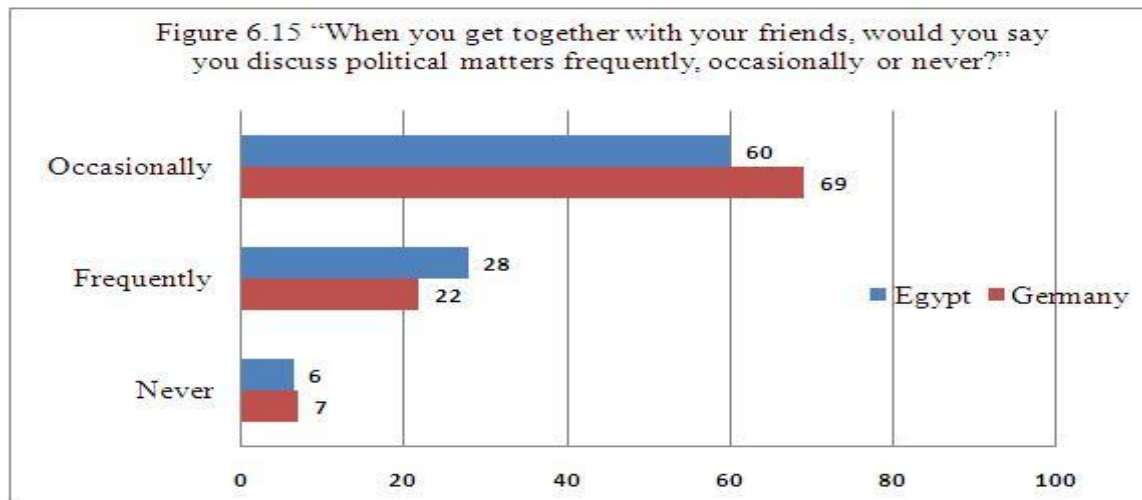
The author in this part focuses on political interest of university student's in both countries because it corresponds and associates to other political variables. Verba, Schlozman, and Brady, 1995, argued that "citizens who are interested in politics - who follow politics, who care about what happens, who are concerned with wins and losses- are more likely to be politically active" (Verba, Schlozman & Brady, 1995, p. 345).

Therefore, the author examines how online political news can increase university student's political interest, which is considered as the first step towards political awareness model, which in later stages related to political knowledge and participation then finally to political awareness. Consequently, the university student's were asked a question about "how interested they are in politics" to measure their political interest. The results show that the preferences between Egyptian and German university student's in their attention to politics are quite similar. More than 23.0% among Germans and 22.2% among Egyptians said they are "very interested" in politics. More than half of student sample; 53.0% in Germany and 54.0% in Egypt said they are "somewhat interested in politics"; while 21.0% of Egyptian and 22 % of German university student's indicated that they are "not very interested in politics". Finally, very small percentage of 1.0% among Germans to 3.0% of Egyptian and German student's respectively signaled that they are "not at all interested" in politics (see figure 6.14 and for more information see Table E.11).

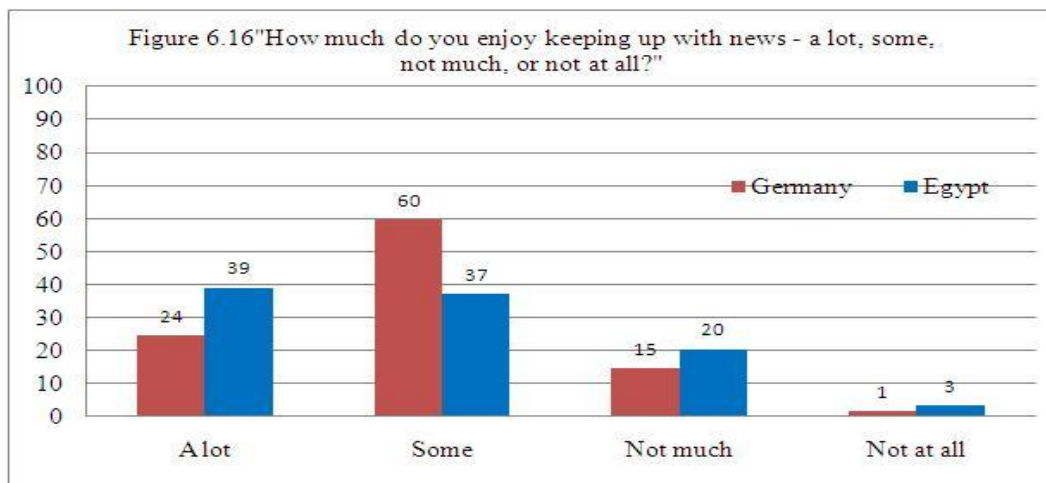


Moreover, in order to measure the university student's political interest, the respondents were asked "when they get together with friends, would you say you discuss political matters frequently,

occasionally, or never?” . The results show that the frequency with which German and Egyptian student’s interest in political matters is quite similar: first, more than 69.0% of Germans and 60.0% of Egyptians said that they occasionally discuss political matters when they get together with their friends.” Followed by 22.0% of Germans and 28.0% of Egyptians who said that they “frequently discuss political matters with their friends” and a small percentage of 7.0% of Germans and 6.0% of Egyptians said that they never speak about politics with their friends (See Figure 6.15, and for more information see Table E.21).

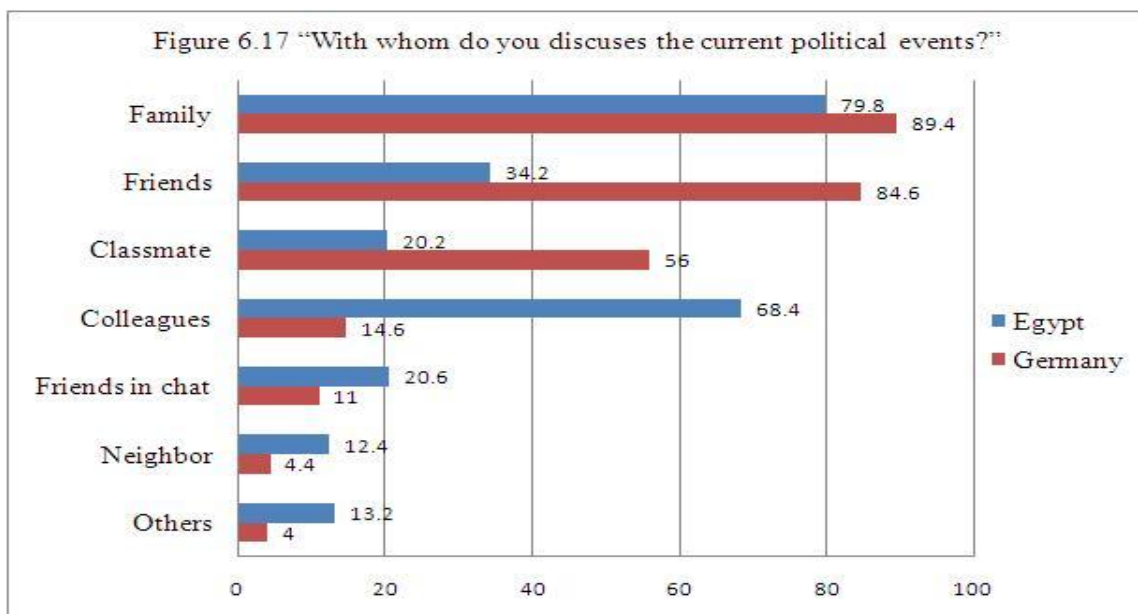


At the end, the proportion of Egyptian and Germany university student’s who are interested in news about current events, public issues, and politics has increased over the last year. As seen in the next figure 6.16 (for more see appendix, Table E.4), 39.0% of Egypt's university student’s are regularly interested in news compared to 24.0% of Germany's university student’s; this average was higher among students who were sometimes interested in news with a percentage of 60.0% among Germans and 37.0% among Egyptians. In addition, the percentage of university student’s in both countries who were not much interested in news consumption, and finally a few percentage with 3.0% of Egyptians and 1.0% of Germans were “not at all interested in news”.



6.4.2 Political discussion

The most common measure of political discussion in the literature is a simple indicator of frequency — how a respondent talks about politics with others. When asked “with who do you discuss the current political events”, German student’s mentioned their family as the most important interacting partner 89.4%, followed by friends 84.6%, and at the third top interacting partner in this regard was "their classmates" with a percentage of 56.0%. The same was found for Egyptian university student’s: family scoring as the top with a percentage of 79.8% followed by colleagues 68.4%, and finally friends 34.2%. In sum, family, friends, and colleagues have an important role, but also in online discussions (see Figure 6. 17, for more information see Table E.22).



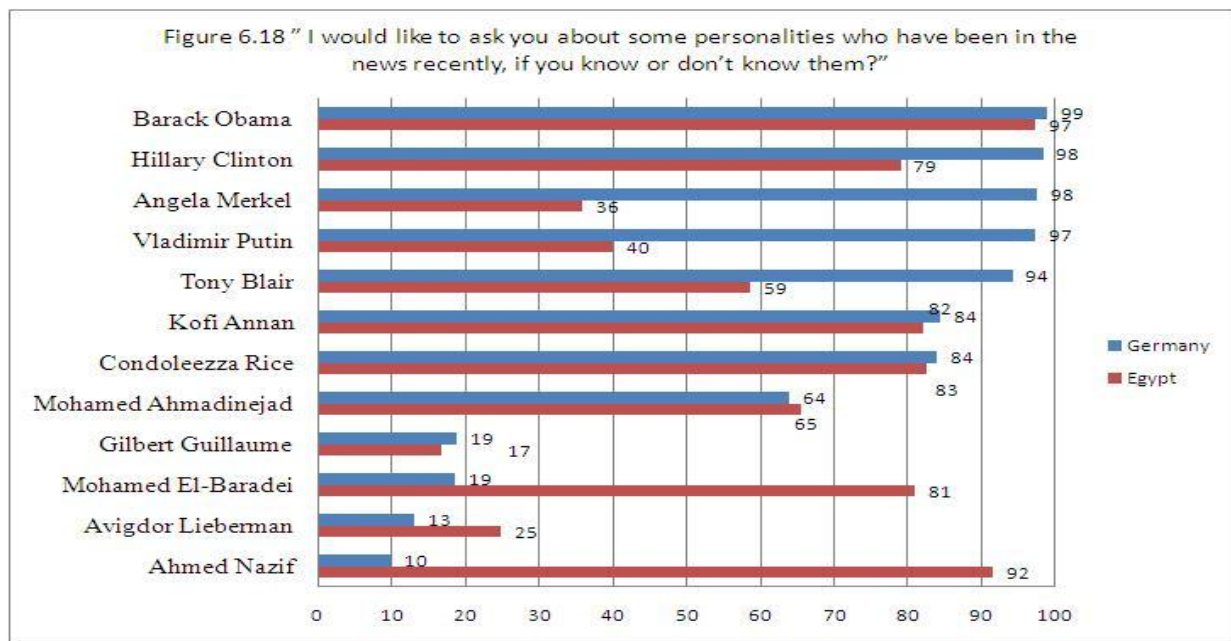
6.4.3. Political knowledge

❖ Factual political knowledge

The author presents in this part the applied approach of measuring “*political knowledge*”. Political knowledge is often divided into components (factual and structure political knowledge, but factual political knowledge is probably the most commonly investigated aspect of political knowledge. The respondents were asked about the name of the prime minister in both countries; a high percentage of the answers were correct especially among Germany’s student’s, nearly 95.8% correctly said that they knew “Angela Merkel” the prime minister of Germany at this time (2010). Also, Egyptian students correctly answered this question about “Ahmed Nazeef” the prime minister of Egypt at this time (2010); nearly 91.6% said that they know him (for more information see Table E.16).

In addition to this, the respondents were asked a question about “how many members of parliament/ Federal Parliament are there in their country?” this question concerns internal political knowledge and the ability to recognize the number of parliament/or federal parliament in their country. The answers for this question were coded as 1= fully correct, and 0 = not correct (508 in Egyptian parliament in this time, and (598) members in Germany’s federal parliament). **The results show that only 5.6% Germany's students correctly answered this question comparing with 29.6% among Egyptian young people who correctly answered this question.** Interestingly, the researcher considered 20 numbers up or down of factual number as nearly correct, and both Egyptians and Germans answered equally nearly correct with a percentages of 22.0%. Finally, the researcher considered all other answers as not correct and more than 41.2% among Germans and 44, 6% among Egyptians were not correct. This demonstrates the lack of internal political knowledge among university student’s in both Egypt and Germany (for more information see Table E.17)

Additionally, to dig deeper concerning the structure political knowledge of university student’s, the students were asked: a question on the statement “I would like to ask you about some personalities who have been in the news recently, if you know or don’t know them”. All answers were coded as 1= know him or her, and 0 = don’t know him or her. The results indicate that both Egyptian and German university student’s were highly able to recognize the names of some prominent politicians. Information about the internal politics was high, especially about the Egyptian and German prime ministers of both countries with a percentage of more than 90.0%; also they had a good background about international political knowledge, such as Obama who was well-known (nearly 99.0% among Germans and 97.4% among Egyptians), as well as some American names such as Hillary Clinton and Condoleezza Rice at about 84.0% among Egyptian, and about 98.4% among Germans knew Clinton (see Figure 6.18, for more information see Table E.16) (for more information see Table E.18)).



❖ The factual of political knowledge

The university student's in both countries were asked "from your own point of view, what was the most important political issue that concerned national or international public opinion in 2009". As an open question that gauges the factual political knowledge through individual's ability to memorize the most important events or specific news that news media focused upon during last year, it is not only limited to political events but includes also economical, social and environmental ones.

The results regarding the Egyptian students' knowledge reveal that factual political knowledge in internal policies got the highest percentage of 50.0%, followed by educational, youth, women, children and work opportunity for young people with 20.0%, and in the third place, the political interest in external policies such as in Iran, Gaza and the Middle Easter with 17.0%. The results of German student's indicate different answer about last year news from the Egyptian ones: 26.0% of German student's gave the priority of new interest to the general economical problems such as: the EU - Banks problem and the economic crisis of Greece, followed by 18.4% concerning the external policies like the "German soldier in Afghanistan and Iraq, and Iran nuclear weapons. It is worth noting that 35.4% of Germans young people did not answer this question comparing to only 2.0% of Egyptian students who did not answer it (see Table 6.19).

Table 6.19 “From your own point of view, what was the most important political Issue that concerned national/international public opinion in 2009”

Item	Egypt		Germany	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Economic crisis	10	2.0	133	26.6
Environment	3	0.01	35	7.0
External Politics	90	17.8	92	18.4
General politics	8	2.0	8	1.6
Internal Politics	250	50.0	33	6.6
Islam	20	4.0	14	2.8
Others	107	20.7	8	1.6
No Answer	12	2.0	177	35.4

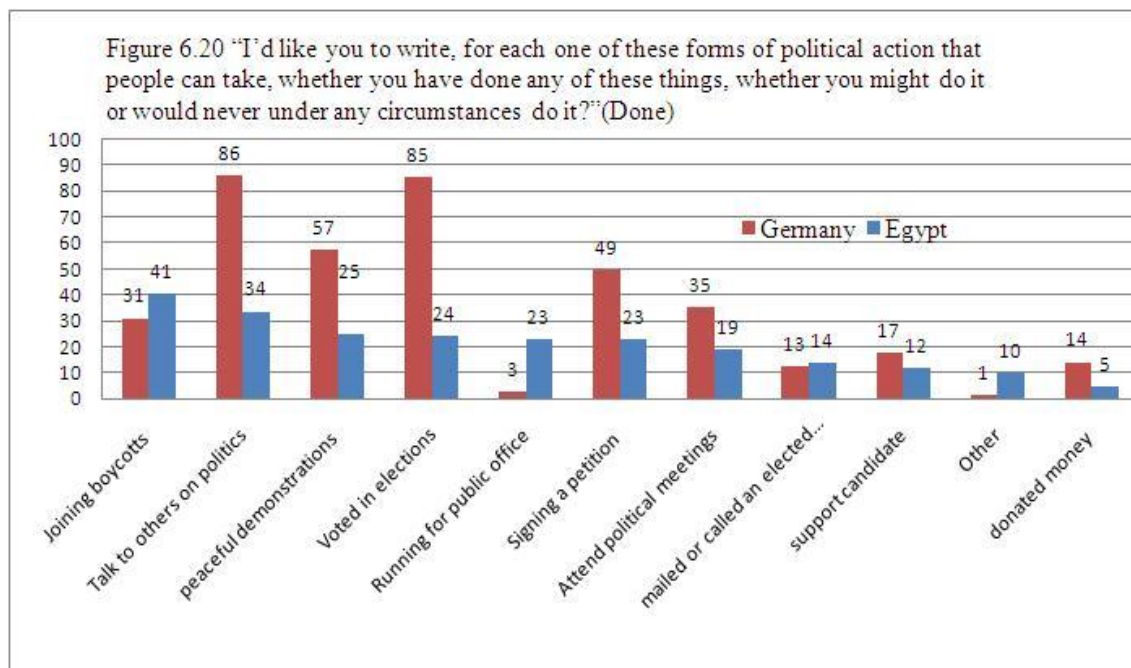
6.4.4 Political participation

Young people are less likely to register to vote and turn out in elections than older people, a small minority have worked on a campaign, contacted a public official, taken part in governmental affairs, or attended a political meeting at the local level” (Verba et al., 1995). The comparison between Germany and Egypt indicated substantial differences in their political participation. In order to further investigate whether university student’s are more motivated to participate in political actions in their countries, the author developed several items from studies about political participation, and created a scale to examine the level of political participation in some political actions and participating in political organization, such as donating money or signing a petition, in connection with some political organization and then the author asked if university students in Egypt and Germany have done, might do, or have never done each one of these participatory actions. The students were asked question “I would like you to write, for each one of these political actions that people can take, whether you have done any of these things, whether you might do it or would never under any circumstances do it, for instance; sign a petition, write or call an elected official, join boycotts for specific products, attend peaceful demonstrations, display a button, yard sign,

bumper sticker, participate in protest or rally, or other sign to support candidate, run for public office, vote in elections, talk to others on politics, work for or donated money to a party, candidate or interest group, attend political meetings and some other political action or vote in an election”.

The results show that, generally, there is a lack of participation in political actions among Egyptian and German student's as well; however, German student's showed more participation in some political activities than Egyptian. On the one hand, the German turnout in elections and involvement in political discourses averaged more than 85.0%, with another 57.4% of them having participated in peaceful demonstrations. This reflects the high political awareness among German student's and their desire to participate in shaping the political future of their country. If we link between this question and questions Nr. 5 about **Internet use and political news we will find that heavy use of political news on the Internet is positively related to a high level of political participation and political awareness**. On the other hand, the Egyptians were less politically active; in particular, their participation in peaceful or negative forms of political actions. The results show that 40.6% of the Egyptians participated in boycotts of specific products, 33.6% involved in political discourses, and only 25.0%, attended peaceful demonstrations.

In general, the results reveal that both German and Egyptian student's were not so much active in the other forms of political participations. For instance, only 4.8% of the Egyptians and 14.0% of the Germans have worked for or donated money to candidates or political parties. Moreover, 52.4% of the Egyptians reported that they would never run for public office in the future and 69.0% of the Germans said that they would never do it in future. Finally, in the comparison between both countries, I noticed that German student's tend to be more politically effective and motivated to participate in political activities, such as voting in elections and becoming involved in political discourses than Egyptians (see figure 6.20, and Table E.12).



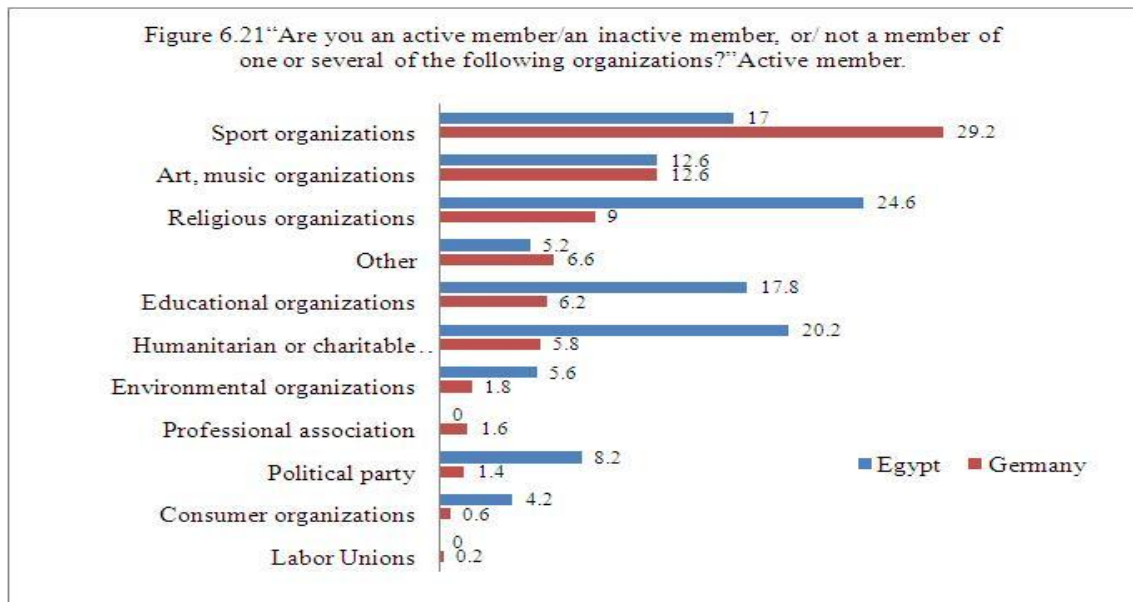
University students and voting

In addition, university student's were asked some questions concerned voting in national elections: "Did you vote in your country's recent elections? And "If there were a national election tomorrow, would you participate?" 85.2% of the Germans sample said that they voted in (current) national election, compared and only 28.4% of the Egyptian young people have voted in the Egyptian presidential election in 2006. A similar question was asked of voting for the next national election in both countries. The results show that not only German university student's show more interest in voting during the next election, with an average of 91.2% (higher than the average of last election voting), but also the average of Egyptian students who signaled that they will vote in the next national election raised to 67.4%. This reflects the feeling of more democracy and freedom and calls for changes in their country's policies in the near future (for more information see Appendixes Table E. 19-20).

❖ Civic activities "Participation in social organizations"

Another issue that should be taken into account is participation in social organization and civil activities among Egyptian and German university student's. Respondents were asked a question about their participation in civic activities, the question drawing from a three point scale: 1= active member, 2= inactive member and 3 = neither. These measures are meant to indicate in which of these several organizations, such as religious, sports, humanitarian, political ...etc,(see appendix A,B, and C q 13), whether they participate as (active member, inactive member, or neither). The results reveal that students in both countries are disinclined to participate in the civic organizational

activities of their own society, in particular because their level of participation as active members in these organizations was very low. In addition, the analyses show that students in both countries tend to have different organizational preferences from each other, for instance, 24.6% of Egyptian students participated as active members in religious organizations, followed by 20.2% in humanitarian or charitable organizations, then 17.8% were active members in educational organizations. Meanwhile, most of German student's were active members in sports organizations with a percentage of 29.2%, followed by 12.6% of them who were active members in art and musical organizations. In speaking about the level of participation in the other organizations (e.g. labor unions, political parties, environmental organizations, professional association, and consumer organizations), the results show that more than 80.0% of the respondents are not active in many civic society organization. (See Figure 6 .21, and for more information see Table E.10).



6.5 Internet use and political awareness

The author above (in the theoretical part of chapter 4) presented his definition of the concept of political awareness. He explored the concept of political awareness and similar constructs as well, starting with definitions of the different political concepts such as political cognitions, interest, efficacy, knowledge, discourse, and participation. Furthermore, the author elaborated on the relationship between using media in general and Internet in particular with accordance to these political concepts and he included some information about youth voting. In addition, he concluded the theoretical part of the same chapter with a common definition of political awareness, how to measure it and the important role the media plays in improving political awareness, in particular, the effect of online political news on political awareness. Although some research has been carried

out on young people's political attitudes, interest, and participation, few works has been done on their political awareness. Given the fundamental importance of political awareness, it is interesting to determine which social and political factors are associated with political awareness.

This study attempts to disentangle the concept of political awareness, which has been conceptualized and operationalized in five different steps. In other words, the measurement of the concept of political awareness in the current study took place in five main dimensions: (see table 6.22)

(1) Firstly, an index including *political interest* (questions 14 and 25, see appendix B and C), the questions were recorded into new variables that have the same scale (rescaled onto the same range), as follows: (0 = not at all interested or never; 1= not very interested or occasionally; 2 = frequently or somewhat interest. 3= very interested). The results show that the two groups are quite similar and differences in their political interest do not exist, which means that both groups retain the main first step for political awareness.

(2) Secondly, dimension is *political discussion* (question 26, coded as 1= yes; 0 = no). The results suggest that there are only small differences between the two groups; the mean and SD are quite similar with no big differences in their political discussion. This dimension combined with interest in politics mentioned above, this means that both groups demonstrate or got the main two first steps for political awareness (interested in politics and discussion with others about political events).

(3) Thirdly, a dimension or an index was generated from the sum of all questions of *political knowledge* (questions 19, 20, 21 and 24, see appendix C) in one index after making sure that all the variable are recoded to be on the same scale or (rescaled onto the same range), (0 = not correct or don't know the answer; 1 = correct or know the answer; 2 = fully correct). The results suggest that the factual political knowledge among Egyptian's is higher than among German's.

(4) The last dimension was an index including all the questions about *political participation* (questions 15, 22 and 23), also after rescaled onto the same range; (0= no or never; 2= done or yes; and 1= might do). The results show that German university student's' scores in political participation were generally higher than Egyptian scores; in addition, the results suggest differences on the level of their turnout that is proved to be higher among Germans than Egyptians.

(5) A single index that combines all the above four indexes into one measure of "political awareness" was generated, in scale from 0- 100 including all above political variable. These variables are the four fundamental dimensions that determine political awareness.

The Min and Max values in both countries were from 0 to 100, and the level of political awareness for German students was higher than level of political awareness for Egyptian students with Mean values of 63.0 (SD=15.7 among Germans) and 45.7 (SD= 17.7 among Egyptians) respectively. The table hereunder shows, the results confirmed the study hypothesis that **“There are significant differences between German university student’s and Egyptians in the level of political awareness „see Table 6.22)**

Table 6. 22. The model of Political awareness

Political variables	Egypt		Germany	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Political interest	3.12×1	1.07	3.08×1	1.13
Political discussion	2.10×1	1.34	2.59×1	1.06
Political knowledge	10.06×2	3.02	9.84×2	2.08
Political participation	6.79×3	4.52	12.55×3	4.18
Political awareness	45.72	17.65	63.02	15.65

❖ The problem of weights:

In the body of research in political knowledge, interest, discussion and participation, scholars overlooked the fact that the practicality of these concepts applies unequal weights and they measured their work accordingly (i.e., they theorized that they have equal weights). On the contrary, the author is aware of this fact and the inaccuracy that can appear in the results from such a mistake. For instance, a person who answered that s/he is politically interested; or only talks with others in politics and just interested in reading some news about current political events should not and it make no sense to receive the same score of points as a person who answered that s/he participated in demonstrations, voted in elections, signed petitions or was active in any positive

form of political participation. In fact, there is no pure statistical method of how to deal with this problem of unequal weight to apply on the political variables mentioned above. Therefore, the author, before generating the final index of political awareness, and by using simple mathematics has multiplied all the questions of political participation by $\times 3$, of political knowledge by $\times 2$, and of political interest and discussion by $\times 1$ in political interest and discussion. The author did so in order to secure a valid measurement of political awareness that does not overlook the appropriate or representative weights of the dimensions, whether the dimensions of political knowledge, interest and discussion or participation.

The idea behind weighting these political variable in this recent developed model of political awareness in this way ($\times 3$ for political participation, $\times 2$ for knowledge, and $\times 1$ for interest and discussion) rather than any other way (for example, why not $\times 15$ points for political participation, $\times 10$ for knowledge, and $\times 5$ for interest and discussion?) is that the author bases his weighting criteria on two main theoretical reasons that explain why the weights of the variables that were used in the subsequent analysis were measured in this way. The first reason lies in the fact that this field of study suffered from lack of information about the measurement of political awareness and that the author did not find any other weighting criteria in previous studies that suggest otherwise. In this point let us begin with the supposition that “democratic citizens should have a minimum understanding of the political system in which they express preferences and elect representatives” (Niemi & Junn 1998, 1). Governments operate “more democratically as the range and depth of information held by citizen’s increases and as the distribution of knowledge becomes more equitable” (Delli Carpini & Keeter 1996, 17). Consequently, the second reason is the logical flow that these political variables follow; in the normal case, individuals build their political awareness, as determined through three consecutive steps: (1) it starts with the individual's attention to politics or political interest and discussions with others about politics, (2) Then, to be qualified in political discussions with others he or she must has an adequate level of political knowledge and information about political issues. (3) The first two steps (political interest, discussion and knowledge) play an important role in motivating individuals to take positive actions in their society, in other words, to become more involved and effects to participate in the political process (political participation) through either positive participation as voting, demonstrations, or any active forms; or through joining boycotts and membership in political parties...etc. The author’s point of view is that individuals who advance through these steps can be defined or recognized as being politically aware about the issues, and problems facing their society and have thorough perspectives of what is really happening in their country.

❖ The problem of causality:

Previous work on the relationship between media use and political variables remains vague with respect to the direction of causality. The problems in such these studies is related to the availability of suitable data to explore this dynamic process, such as single waves in these data, don't allow for inferences about the causal direction, to indicate or draw the direction of the causality I need more than two waves panel survey data. Consequently, the main aim of the dissertation is to investigate only the correlations between the variables of political interest, discussion, knowledge and participation with political awareness, then political awareness with online political news.

In Germany:

The next table shows strong positive relationships between all these political variables together; (political interest and political knowledge, $r=0.46$, $p<0.005$), (political interest and political discussion, $r=0.46$, $p<0.005$), (political interest and political participation, $r=0.50$, $p<0.005$), (political knowledge and political discussion, $r=0.28$, $p<0.005$), (political knowledge and political participation, $r=0.38$, $p<0.005$) and (political discussion and political participation, $r=0.38$, $p<0.005$). In the same line, these political variables, as shown below, are strongly related with the variable of political awareness; (political interest and political awareness, $r=0.62$, $p<0.005$), (political discussion and political awareness, $r=0.48$, $p<0.005$), (political knowledge and political awareness, $r=0.62$, $p<0.005$) and a very strong correlation between (political participation and political awareness, $r=0.96$, $p<0.005$).

	Political Knowledge	Political Interest	Political Discussion	Political Participation	Political Awareness
Political Knowledge Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 500	.463** .000 500	.280** .000 500	.382** .000 500	.619** .000 500
Political Interest Sig. (2-tailed) N	.463** .000 500	1 500	.459** .000 500	.500** .000 500	.622** .000 500
Political Discussion Sig. (2-tailed) N	.280** .000 500	.459** .000 500	1 500	.388** .000 500	.481** .000 500
Political Participation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.382** .000 500	.500** .000 500	.388** .000 500	1 500	.957** .000 500
Political Awareness Sig. (2-tailed) N	.619** .000 500	.622** .000 500	.481** .000 500	.957** .000 500	1 500

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In Egypt:

The table below shows strong and positive relationships between all these political variables together; (political interest and political knowledge, $r=0.41$, $p<0.005$), (political interest and political discussion, $r=0.27$, $p<0.005$), (political interest and political participation, $r=0.27$, $p<0.005$), (political knowledge and political discussion, $r=0.27$, $p<0.005$), (political knowledge and political participation, $r=0.38$, $p<0.005$) and (political discussion and political participation, $r=0.33$, $p<0.005$). In the same line, these political variables, as shown above, are strongly related with the variable of political awareness; (political interest and political awareness, $r=0.44$, $p<0.005$), (political discussion and political awareness, $r=0.43$, $p<0.005$), (political knowledge and political awareness, $r=0.65$, $p<0.005$) and a very strong correlation between (political participation and political awareness, $r=0.93$, $p<0.005$).

	Political Knowledge	Political Discussion	Political Participation	Political Interest	Political Awareness
Political Knowledge Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 500	.269** .000 500	.332** .000 500	.413** .000 500	.650** .000 500
Political Discussion Sig. (2-tailed) N	.269** .000 500	1 500	.314** .000 500	.274** .000 500	.431** .000 500
Political Participation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.332** .000 500	.314** .000 500	1 500	.271** .000 500	.926** .000 500
Political Interest Sig. (2-tailed) N	.413** .000 500	.274** .000 500	.271** .000 500	1 500	.443** .000 500
Political Awareness Sig. (2-tailed) N	.650** .000 500	.431** .000 500	.926** .000 500	.443** .000 500	1 500

To sum up, this model suggest that political interest and discussion are related with political knowledge, also political knowledge related to political participation, and all these political variables (political participation, knowledge, and interest and discussion) comprised together and related to political awareness. However, in some cases political participation appears to be the first step, an obvious example is what happened in Egypt and Tunisia in 2011; when millions of people went to the streets in huge revolutions to change the regime and call for change to express their strong desire for a democratic atmosphere and change. In this case, political participation came before political interest and knowledge. But we should be aware of the fact that if we looked closer at the stage that followed this political participation, we will see that these individuals still have

little understanding of politics; something was missing and many political questions were raised in the minds of the Egyptian and Tunisian demonstrators that they were ignorant about, such as: what is constitutional?, What does constitutional declaration mean? Does parliament or presidential elections come first? What changes should be made in the new constitution? What is military rule? All of those questions have to be answered in order to understand the political system. The citizens should read about current political issues, become involved in political discussions with political leaders, experts and peers, and follow-up with different news mediums whose roles are to facilitate information about current political events and facilitate the learning about politics. In sum, this study supports the argument that different and high aspects of political interest, discussion, knowledge and participation have strong influences and implications on the outcomes of political awareness.

Chapter 7: Summary and conclusion in light of theory and hypothesis

This study examines the relationship between university students' exposure to political news on the Internet and their political awareness. The author started with the hypothesis that heavy use of political news on the Internet is positively related to political awareness. A further research question aimed at measuring the role of intervening variables, such as gender, income and more. The results shows that there is a positive relationship between using political news on the Internet and political awareness for university students' among Egyptians and Germany's.

Additionally, the findings shows that online political news plays a powerful role in promoting more political interest, knowledge, and participation in political activity, which also related to increasing the amount of political awareness for university student's both in Germany and Egypt. The results also indicate the important role of traditional media platforms, for instance, national and international TV, or newspapers on promoting political awareness.

Additionally, the results reveal that German university student's who have more exposure to Internet news in general were more aware of and involved in politics than Egyptian university student's. Moreover, the political environment and the level of human rights play an important role as motivation for university students' to participate in political live in their country. Here. Essentially, the author found significant differences between German and Egyptian university student's in the intensity and frequency of Internet usage and attitudes towards political news on the Internet along the lines of gender and social status, in addition to some other political factors, for instance, the amount of democracy and the political environment. This agree with Abdulla 2007 predicted that "social interaction on the Internet, although a new concept to the Arab world, has the potential to provide a basis for the creation of a more understanding and a more accepting people, [and] the creation of online virtual communities that could lead to a more democratic and more active civil society" (Abdulla, 2007, p. 151).

These results confirm that hypothesis that "there are significant differences between German university student's and Egyptians in the level of political awareness". The political awareness for German university student's was on the same level with (in Germany, *there was no difference between the means and no gap between male and female related to their level of political awareness*), (Mean= 63.4, SD= \pm 15.3) for males, compared to (Mean= 63.2, SD= \pm 15.7) for females, (the significance level of $p \geq 0.05$ or $p = 0.88$ and $T = 492 = 0.153$ showed in the independent T- test). In Egypt as well the results show no significant differences between males and

females with a Mean of 50.39 and SD of ± 14.66 for males, comparing with a Mean of 51.73 and a SD of ± 18.57 among female (the significance level of $p \geq 0.05$ or $p = 0.420$ and $T_{404} = 0.807$). Accordingly, **the findings do not confirm the hypothesis that** “The use of political news on the internet shows differences between males and females in both countries in their level of political awareness.

Generally, respondents tend to participate in elections more than other forms of political activity, especially among German university student's with an average of 85.0%. Overall, the findings presented in this study suggest that although online political news can largely affect or has a positive correlation with political awareness and participation on politics. However, it does not relate with university student's' involvements in societal organizations and civic activities; the results found that university student's in both countries are disinclined to participate in the civic organizations' activities of their own societies, with just a small percentage of 25.0% of Egyptian students having participated as active members in religious organizations, and 29.0% of German student's as active members in sport organizations.

The results of the t-test revealed a highly significant differences ($t(996) = 5.04$, Sig. < 0.001) between the two countries regarding the degree of activity in civic organizations, and the differences were in favor of Egypt with a mean value of 1.10 and a standard deviation of 1.26, comparing to a mean value of 0.68 and a standard deviation of 0.89 in Germany. And these results answered the study question “Are there differences between university student's in two countries on their participation in society, civic activity?”, and confirmed the hypothesis that “there are statistically significant differences between young Egyptians and Germans in the level of participation in society organization”.

At the same time, socio-economic factors were in directly controlled for by the author, for instance, age and level of education. The sample respondents were approximately of the same age (18-22), and the education level was high education (13-17); however, some other factors were not controlled because it is already known, especially income, and it is very clear that the gap between the two countries here factors and the researcher controlled for it via some questions like “Do you have Internet at home or pc or laptop” Breaking down the illiteracy barrier and narrowing the digital divide between the information “haves” and “have-nots” in both countries also leads to political awareness via political knowledge, interest, and participation. But in the near future the Internet will become available to vast segments of the wider public in Egypt, rather than being restricted

only to elites. For example, Abdulla (2007, p. 48) reported that there are currently a huge number of Internet cafes in Egypt: even in the most rural and the poorest areas throughout the country.

Several important lessons can be learned from this study. First, although young citizens still utilize traditional news media as an important source of political information, they learn more from online political news, talking with friends through forum, chatroom, and social networks website such as facebook and twitter. Theories of the relationship between the Internet and political interest, knowledge, and participation have developed along two main schools of thought--those contending that the Internet has a negative or null effect and those arguing that Internet exposure increases political efficacy, knowledge, and participation.

It is difficult to know, whether political news on the Internet causes political awareness on the individual level, because of the linkage between political awareness and some other political variables, for instance, political knowledge, interest, participation. Also, if individuals already participated in politics actions without using Internet political news. To ward about all these variables, the Author measured all these political variables: interest, knowledge, and participation, but a long term waves of surveys is necessary to measure the relation between the Internet's impacts on all above political variables. In addition, one of the inherent difficulties in studying the relationship between the Internet and political involvement is that Internet users searching for political information typically report high levels of internal efficacy (Muhlberger, 2002), external efficacy (Johnson & Kaye, 2003), and political knowledge (Delli Carpini & Keeter, 2003).

8- Recommendations:

Some limitations of the current study could be identified for further investigations. Further research should use larger number of participants in different geographical areas, conducted for a longer Period in multiple waves survey panels to prove the causality relationship among Political awareness and political interest, knowledge, and participation , and considers other groups of population not only young people. Moreover, we need for more research and comparative studies among young people in Egypt before and after the revolution that changed the political conditions for the better understanding for political process, which will have a strong and positive-related influence on their political participation, which has a strong influence on the political awareness of young people. Therefore, the researcher recommends that further studies should be made in order to obtain more definite results, instead of depending on the results of just only one study. Using other measurement instruments than those used in the current study would be also important.

In addition, the scholars should give more attention in their research about the role of online political news in our life, and have to give more interested about the key role of social network in political transformation and democracy. Finally, the normative aspects of future research should not be forgotten, rebuilding Egyptian media system after post-Egyptian revolution.

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Appendices

Appendix. A. English language Questionnaire

Philosophy Faculty

Institute of media and Communication

TU Dresden

Questionnaire

For the Degree of (PhD)

(Title)

Students' Exposure to Political News on the Internet and Political Awareness: A Comparison between Germany and Egypt

(Supervision by)

Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Donsbach

Chair of Communication Studies I

Director

By

Mohamed Ahmed Khalifa Ahmed

Faculty of specific Education

Mass communication Department

El Minia University- Egypt

Hello. I'm Mohamed Ahmed (Institute of Communication and Media -TU Dresden- PhD student). I'm carrying out a comparison study of the role of Political News on the Internet and Political Awareness. You are part of a representative sample of the students enrolled in Dresden University/ MiniaUniversity.

I would be very grateful if you would be so kind to take part in my study answering the following questions. Please answer them spontaneously and openly. Leave blank those you are not able to answer.

Your answers will of course remain completely anonymous and will be only statistically reported and not singularly. As a social scientist I take full responsibility for this.

Q1-People use different sources to learn what is going on in their country and the world. Which kind of the following media do you use?

	Always	Sometimes	Never
Local Newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
National Newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
News broadcasts on local Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
News broadcasts on national Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Local news TV channel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
National news TV channel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
International TV channel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In depth reports on Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In depth reports on TV	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talkshows programs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Internet news sites.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q2-Did your use of each of the following media increased, decreased, or stayed the same in the last few years? (You may choose more than one answer)

	Increased	Stayed the same	Decreased
Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
TV	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Video	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cinema	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q3-Yesterday, did you get news from...? (You may choose more than one answer)

- 1- TV ☐
- 2- Radio ☐
- 3- Daily ☐
- 4- Internet websites ☐
- 5- All ☐
- 6- No news yesterday ☐

Q4-How much do you enjoy keeping up with news - a lot, some, not much, or not at all?

- 1- A lot ☐
- 2- Some ☐
- 3- Not much ☐
- 4- Not at all ☐

Q5- Which kind of the following media do you use when you need to get more details about current political issues?

	Always	Sometimes	Never
Local Newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
National Newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
News broadcasts on local Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
News broadcasts on national Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Local news TV channel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
National news TV channel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
International TV channel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In depth reports on Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In depth reports on TV	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talk show programs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Internet news sites.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Others:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Q6- How often do you access the Internet and where?

Location	Multiple Time per day	About once per day	2-6 times per week	About once per week	More than once per month	Less than once per month	Never
Home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
University	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Internet café	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Library	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other location:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q7- When you go online, what online source do you use the most often when you are looking for political news or information on current events?

(You may choose more than one)

- 1- TV news website ☐
- 2- Major newspapers website ☐
- 3 -News from Google, yahoo, etc.... ☐
- 4- Social Network news ☐
- 5- CNN website ☐
- 6- Fox news website ☐
- 7- Aljazeera news website ☐
- 8- News from journalist blogs ☐
- 9- Online news discussion blogs ☐
- 10- News from friend's ☐
- 11- None of these sources ☐

Q8- Which of the following activities do you usually participate in on the Internet?

	Multiple Times per day	About once per day	2-6 times per week	About once per week	More than once per month	Less than once per month	Never
Chatting	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Use E-Mail	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Visit online news websites	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Searching for information about goods or services	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Playing games	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Activities related to college or university courses	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to music	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q9-Do you have any type of personal computer, including laptops- such as an IBM PC or Macintosh at your home ? These do not include game machines.

1- Yes ☐ 2- No

Q10- What kind of problems do you face when you browsing the Internet websites? (You may chose more than one)

- 1 - Low speed to contact and download files ☐
- 2 - Foreign language of the website ☐
- 3 - Lack of the information which I want ☐
- 4 - Viruses ☐
- 5 - The requirement of some websites to pay fees for service ☐
- 6 - Other problems ☐
- 7 - No problems ☐

Q11-Do you think that political news in the Internet are giving too much coverage/ too little coverage or /the right amount of coverage to the political news about current events?

1 - Too much coverage ☐

2 - Too little coverage ☐

3 - The right amount of coverage ☐

Q12- How much confidence do you have that the political news in the Internet is giving the public an accurate picture of what is happening in all over the world?

1- A great deal of confidence ☐

2- A fair amount of confidence ☐

3- Not too much confidence ☐

4- No confidence at all ☐

5- Don't know ☐

Q13- Are you an active member/an inactive member, or/ not a member of one or several of the following organizations?

	Active member	Inactive member	Neither
Religious organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sport organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Art, music organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Educational organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Labor Unions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Political party	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Environmental organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Professional association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Humanitarian or charitable organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consumer organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q14-How interested would you say you are in politics?

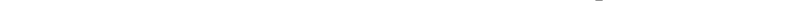
- 1 - Very interested ☐
- 2 - Somewhat interested ☐
- 3 - Not very interested ☐
- 4 - Not at all interested ☐

Q15- I'd like you to write, for each one of these forms of political action that people can take, whether you have done any of these things, whether you might do it or would never under any circumstances do it?

	I have done	I might do	I never do
Signing a petition	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Written-mailed or called an elected official	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Joining boycotts for specific products	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attending peaceful demonstrations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
displayed a button, yard sign, bumper sticker, participate in protest or rally, or other sign to support candidate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Running for public office	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Voted in elections	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talk to others on politics	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Worked for or donated money to a party, candidate or interest group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attend political meetings	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Not at all absolutely

Important important



1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Not at all Democratic absolutely democratic

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

1 - A great deal of respect for individual human right ☐

2 - Fairly much respect ☐

3 - Not much respect ☐

4 - No respect at all ☐

.....

.....

Q21- I would like to ask you about some personalities who have been in the news recently, if you know or don't know them?

	I know
Barack Obama	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hillary Clinton	<input type="checkbox"/>
Condoleezza Rice	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mohamed Ahmadinejad	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ahmed Nazif	<input type="checkbox"/>
Angela Merkel	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mohamed El-Baradei	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tony Blair	<input type="checkbox"/>
Avigdor Lieberman	<input type="checkbox"/>
Vladimir Putin	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gilbert Guillaume	<input type="checkbox"/>
Kofi Annan	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q22 - Did you vote in your country's recent elections?

1 -Yes ☐ 2 - No ☐

Q23 - If there were a national election tomorrow, will you participate?

1-Yes ☐ 2 - No ☐

Q24 - from your own point of view, what was the most important political issue that concerned national/international public opinion in 2009?

.....

Q25 - When you get together with your friends, would you say you discuss political matters frequently, occasionally or never?

1 - Frequently ☐
 2- Occasionally ☐
 3 – Never ☐

Q26– With whom do you discuss the current political events?

(You may choose more than one)

- 1 - Family ☐
- 2 – Colleagues ☐
- 3 - Friends ☐
- 4 - My neighbour ☐
- 5 - Classmate ☐
- 6 - Friends in chat room ☐
- 7 - Others: ☐

At the end, I would ask you now for some personal data:

Faculty:

Country:

Gender: 1 - male ☐ 2 - Female ☐

Thank you very much for your support.

Appendix.B.Germany language Questionnair

Technische Universität Dresden

Philosophische Fakultät

Institut für Kommunikationswissenschaft

Fragebogen

Zur Erlangung des Dokortitels

Thema

Students' Exposure to Political News on the Internet and Political Awareness:

A Comparison between Germany and Egypt

(Betreut von)

Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Donsbach

Lehrstuhl für Kommunikationswissenschaft I

von

Mohamed Ahmed Khalifa Ahmed

Faculty of specific Education

Mass communication Department

El Minia University. Egypt

(2009)

Hallo! Ich bin Mohamed Ahmed, Doktorand am Institut für Kommunikationswissenschaft der TU Dresden. Ich führe für meine Dissertation im Fach Kommunikationswissenschaft eine vergleichende Studie über die Nachrichtennutzung von jungen Menschen durch. Du wurdest im Rahmen von jeweils repräsentativen Stichproben der Studierenden an der TU Dresden und an der El-Minia-Universität in Ägypten ausgewählt. Mit der Beantwortung des Fragebogens hilfst Du mir, meine Dissertation erfolgreich zu Ende zu führen und wichtige kommunikationswissenschaftliche Erkenntnisse zu gewinnen. Deine Antworten bleiben selbstverständlich anonym und werden nur statistisch ausgewertet.

1. Man kann ja verschiedene Quellen nutzen, um zu erfahren, was im eigenen Land und in der Welt passiert. Inwiefern nutzt Du die folgenden Quellen?

	Immer	manchmal	Nie
Lokale Tageszeitungen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Überregionale Tageszeitungen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im Lokalradio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im deutschlandweiten Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im Lokalfernsehen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im deutschlandweiten Fernsehen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Internationale Fernsehsender	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reportagen im Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reportagen im Fernsehen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talkshows	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Andere:	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Wenn Du einige Jahre zurückdenkst: Nutzt Du die folgenden Quellen jetzt häufiger, seltener oder genauso oft wie früher?

	Häufiger	Seltener	Genauso oft
Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fernsehen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Video	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Kino	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Zeitungen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Woher hast Du Dich gestern über das Aktuelle Geschehen informiert?

(Mehrfachangaben möglich)

- 1 – Fernsehen ☐
- 2 - Radio ☐
- 3 - Tageszeitungen ☐
- 4 – Internet ☐
- 5 – Habe gestern die Nachrichten nicht verfolgt ☐

4. Wie gern verfolgst Du die aktuelle Nachrichtenlage?

- 1 – Sehr gern ☐
- 2 – Einigermassen stark gern ☐
- 3 - Nicht sehr gern ☐
- 4 – überhaupt nicht gern ☐

5. Inwiefern nutzt Du die folgenden Quellen, wenn Du ausführlichere Informationen über aktuelle politische Themen erhalten möchtest?

	Immer	Manchmal	Nie
Lokale Tageszeitungen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Überregionale Tageszeitungen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im Lokalradio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im deutschlandweiten Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im Lokalfernsehen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im deutschlandweiten Fernsehen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Internationale Fernsehsender	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reportagen im Radio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reportagen im Fernsehen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Talkshows	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichten im Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Andere: _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. Wo und wie oft nutzt Du das Internet?

	mehrmals täglich	einmal am Tag	2-6 mal pro Woche	ungefähr einmal pro Woche	mehr als einmal im Monat	weniger als einmal im Monat	Nie
Zuhause	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An der Uni	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Im Internetcafé	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In der Bibliothek	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An einem anderen Ort	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. Wenn Du im Internet nach politischen Nachrichten oder Informationen zu aktuellen Ereignissen suchst, welche Quellen nutzt Du dabei am häufigsten?

(Mehrfachangaben möglich)

- 1 – Website einer Fernsehnachrichtensendung ☐
- 2 - Website einer Tageszeitung ☐
- 3 - Nachrichten von Google, Yahoo etc. ☐
- 4 – Soziale Netzwerke ☐
- 5 – Die Website von CNN ☐
- 6 – die Website von Fox News ☐
- 7 – Die Website von Aljazeera ☐
- 8 – Blogs von Journalisten ☐
- 9 – Nachrichtenblogs ☐
- 10 – Nachrichten von Freunden ☐
- 11 - keine dieser Quellen ☐

8. Wie oft nutzt Du für gewöhnlich das Internet für die folgenden Tätigkeiten?

	mehrmals täglich	einmal am Tag	2-6 mal pro Woche	ungefähr einmal pro Woche	mehr als einmal im Monat	weniger als einmal im Monat	Nie
Chatten	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E-Mail	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nachrichtenwebsites lesen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Informationen über Produkte oder Dienstleistungen suchen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Onlinespiele spielen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
studienbezogene Aktivitäten	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Musik hören	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
andere Aktivitäten	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. Hast Du einen PC oder Laptop?

1- PC ☐

2- Laptop ☐

10. Welche Probleme begegnen Dir bei der Nutzung von Webseiten?

(Mehrfachangaben möglich)

1 – Langsame Internetverbindung ☐

2- Webseiten in einer fremden Sprache ☐

3– Ich finde die gesuchten Informationen nicht ☐

4 – Viren ☐

5 – Inhalte einiger Webseiten sind kostenpflichtig ☐

6 – Andere Probleme ☐

7 - keine Probleme ☐

11. Würdest Du sagen, dass politische Nachrichten im Internet zuviel, zu wenig oder genau den richtigen Umfang an Informationen über aktuelle Ereignisse enthalten?

1 - Zuviel ☐

2- Zu wenig ☐

2- Genau richtig ☐

12. Inwieweit vertraust Du politischen Nachrichten im Internet, dass sie ein zutreffendes Bild der Ereignisse in der Welt vermitteln?

1- Habe großes Vertrauen ☐

2- Habe ausreichend Vertrauen ☐

3- Habe wenig Vertrauen ☐

4- Habe überhaupt kein Vertrauen ☐

5- kann ich nicht beurteilen ☐

13. Bist Du aktives, passives oder kein Mitglied einer oder mehrerer der folgenden Organisationen?

	aktives Mitglied	passives Mitglied	kein Mitglied
Religiöse Organisationen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sportvereine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Kunst- oder Musikvereine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bildungsvereine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gewerkschaften	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Politische Partei	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Umweltorganisationen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Berufsverbände	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Humanitäre oder gemeinnützige Organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Verbrauchervereine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
andere Organisationen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

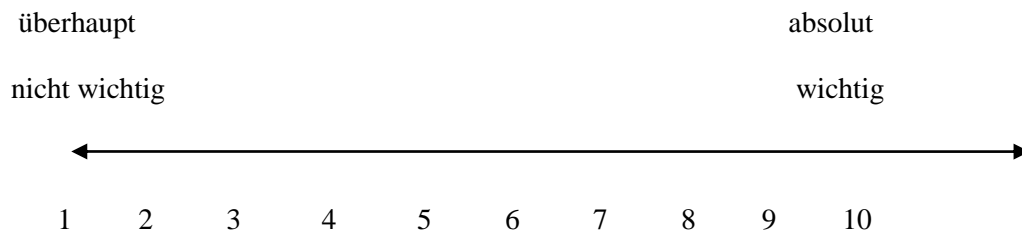
14. Wie sehr interessierst Du Dich für Politik?

- 1 - Sehr interessiert ☐
- 2 - Etwas interessiert ☐
- 3 - Nicht sehr interessiert ☐
- 4 - überhaupt nicht interessierst ☐

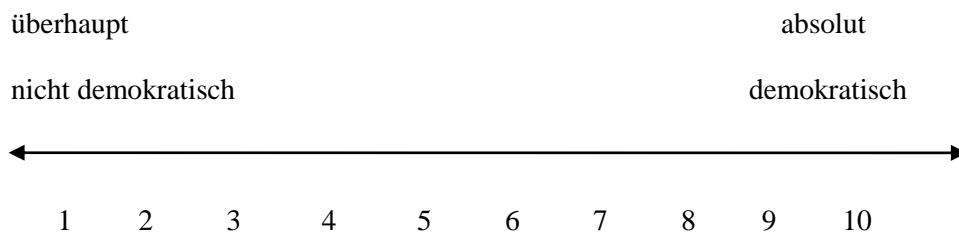
15. Ich möchte, dass Du für jede der folgenden Tätigkeiten Kreuze ob Du eine oder mehrere dieser je getan hast, tun würdest oder unter keinen Umständen tun würdest?

	habe ich getan	würde ich tun	würde ich nicht tun
Eine Petition unterzeichnet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mich an einen gewählten Vertreter gewandt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bestimmte Produkte boykottiert	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An einer friedlichen Demonstration teilgenommen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Einen Kandidaten unterstützt, beispielsweise mit dem Tragen eines Buttons, einem Autoaufkleber oder der Teilnahme an einer Veranstaltung	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Selbst für ein öffentliches Amt kandidiert	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An Wahlen teilgenommen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mit anderen über Politik gesprochen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Eine Partei, einen Kandidaten oder eine Interessengruppe unterstützt oder Geld gespendet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An politischen Veranstaltungen teilgenommen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
andere Aktivitäten: _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. Wie wichtig ist es für Dich, in einem demokratisch regierten Land zu leben? Auf dieser Skala, in der (1) “überhaupt nicht wichtig” und (10) “absolut wichtig” bedeutet, welche Position würdest Du wählen?



17. Wie sehr wird das Land, in dem Du heute lebst, demokratisch regiert? Auf dieser Skala, in der (1) “überhaupt nicht” und (10) “absolut demokratisch” bedeutet, welche Position würdest Du wählen?



18. Wie sehr werden die Menschenrechte in deinem Land heutzutage geachtet?

- 1- Sehr stark ☐
- 2- Einigermassen stark ☐
- 3- Nicht sehr stark ☐
- 4- Überhaupt nicht ☐

19. Wer ist gerade Bundeskanzler in deinem Land?

.....

20. Wieviele Mitglieder hat der Bundestag in deinem Land?

.....

21. In dieser Übersicht sind einige Persönlichkeiten aufgeführt, die kürzlich in den Nachrichten waren. Welche davon kennst Du?

	kenne ich
Barack Obama	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hillary Clinton	<input type="checkbox"/>
Condoleezza Rice	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mohamed Ahmadinejad	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ahmed Nazif	<input type="checkbox"/>
Angela Merkel	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mohamed El-Baradei	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tony Blair	<input type="checkbox"/>
Avigdor Lieberman	<input type="checkbox"/>
Vladimir Putin	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gilbert Guillaume	<input type="checkbox"/>
Kofi Annan	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. Bist Du zur letzten Wahl gegangen?

1 – ja ☐ 2 – Nein ☐

23. Wenn am nächsten Sonntag Wahlen wären, würdest Du wählen gehen?

1 - Ja ☐ 2 - Nein ☐

24. Was ist aus deiner Sicht das wichtigste nationale oder internationale politische Thema im Jahr 2009?

.....

25. Wie oft diskutierst Du mit deinen Freunden über Politik?

1 - Häufig ☐

2 - Gelegentlich ☐

3 - Nie ☐

26. Mit wem diskutierst Du über aktuelle politische Geschehnisse?

1- Familie ☐

2 - Kollegen ☐

3 - Freunde ☐

4 - Nachbarn ☐

5 - Kommilitonen ☐

6 - Freunde in Internet-Chats oder Foren ☐

7 - Andere: _____ ☐

Zum Schluss würde ich Dich noch um einige persönliche Angaben bitten:

Fakultät: _____

Heimatland: _____

Geschlecht: 1-Männlich ☐ 2- Weiblich ☐

Appendix. C Arabic language Questionnair

كلية الآداب والعلوم الإنسانية
معهد الاتصال والدراسات الإعلامية
جامعة دريسدن التكنولوجية

استبيان

مقدم في إطار إجراءات الحصول علي درجة الدكتوراه في الإعلام

(بعنوان)

(دور الأخبار السياسية على شبكة الإنترنت والصحف الالكترونية في تنمية الوعي السياسي لطلاب الجامعات المصرية والألمانية)

دراسة تطبيقية مقارنة

إشراف

أ.د- وولف جانج دونس باخ

أستاذ الإعلام والاتصال

ورئيس قسم الإعلام- معهد الاتصال والدراسات الإعلامية

جامعة دريسدن التكنولوجية

إعداد

محمد احمد خليفة

مدرس مساعد-جامعة المنيا

قسم الإعلام التربوي-جامعة المنيا

مرحبا.

أنا محمد أحمد (طالب دكتوراه بمعهد الاتصالات والدراسات الإعلامية - جامعة دريسدن التكنولوجية بألمانيا). حيث أقوم بإجراء دراسة علمية مقارنة عن دور الأخبار السياسية على شبكة الإنترنت والصحف الالكترونية في تنمية الوعي السياسي لطلاب الجامعات. اسمك هو جزء من عينة ممثلة من الطلاب المسجلين في جامعة المنيا. حيث أود معرفة وجهة نظرك حول عدد من القضايا المختلفة. مع العلم بان جميع البيانات الخاصة بك سوف تعامل بسرية تامة ولا تستخدم الا لغرض البحث العلمي.

1- يستخدم الأفراد مصادر عديدة و مختلفة للحصول علي المعلومات حول ما يحدث في بلادهم والعالم. ما هي المصادر التي تستخدمها عادة من الآتي؟ وما مدي تكرار استخدامك لها؟" أرجو الإجابة عن كل عبارة"

	دائماً	بعض الأحيان	لا استخدم مطلقاً
الصحف المحلية			
الصحف القومية			
محطات الراديو الإقليمية			
محطات الراديو العامة			
القنوات التلفزيونية الإقليمية			
القنوات التلفزيونية العامة			
القنوات التلفزيونية الفضائية			
التقارير الإخبارية بالراديو			
التقارير الإخبارية بالتلفزيون			
برامج التوك شو			
أخبار الانترنت			
أخري تذكر.....			

2- هل معدل استخدامك لوسائل الإعلام الآتية في السنوات القليلة الماضية زاد - قل أم لم يتأثر؟" أرجو الإجابة عن كل عبارة"

	زاد	قل	لم يتأثر
الانترنت			
الراديو			
التلفزيون			
الصحف			

3- من أي المصادر الآتية حصلت علي الإخبار بالأمس ؟" يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة"

- 1- التلفزيون ()
- 2-الراديو ()
- 3-الصحف والمجلات اليومية ()
- 4-مواقع الانترنت ()
- 5-لم أتابع الأخبار بالأمس ()

4- ما مدي اهتمامك بمتابعة الأخبار في وسائل الإعلام؟" من فضلك اختيار إجابة واحدة"

- 1- بطريقة منتظمة
- 2- أحيانا
- 3- في أوقات قليلة
- 4- لا أتابع الأخبار مطلقا

5- أي وسائل الإعلام الآتية أكثر استخداما لك عند الحاجة للحصول على المزيد من المعلومات حول القضايا السياسية والأحداث الجارية ؟" أرجو الإجابة عن كل عبارة"

دائما	بعض الأوقات	لا استخدم مطلقا	
			الصحف المحلية
			الصحف القومية
			محطات الراديو الإقليمي
			محطات الراديو العامة
			القنوات التلفزيونية الإقليمية
			القنوات التلفزيونية العامة
			القنوات الفضائية
			التقارير الإخبارية بالراديو
			التقارير الإخبارية بالتلفزيون
			برامج التوك شو
			أخبار الانترنت
			أخري تذكر.....

6- كم عدد مرات استخدامك للإنترنت؟ وأين؟ " أرجو الإجابة عن كل عبارة"

	أكثر من مرة يوميًا	مرة في اليوم	2-6 مرات في الأسبوع	مرة في الأسبوع	أكثر من مرة في الشهر	علي الأقل مرة في الشهر	لا استخدمه مطلقًا
المنزل							
الجامعة							
كافي نت							
المكتبة							
العمل							
أخري تذكر...							

7- عندما تتصفح الإنترنت، ما هي أهم المواقع الإخبارية الإلكترونية الآتية التي تستخدمها عادة عندما تريد الحصول علي معلومات أكثر عن الأحداث الجارية والأخبار السياسية؟ يمكن اختيار أكثر من إجابة"

1- مواقع القنوات التلفزيونية

2- الصحف الإلكترونية

3- أخبار من محركات البحث الشهيرة "جوجل،ياهوو.....الخ

4- المواقع الإخبارية الاجتماعية "فيس بوك،تويتر.....الخ

5- (سي ان ان) اون لاين

6- (فوكس) اون لاين

7- (الجزيرة) اون لاين

8- مواقع المدونات الصحفية المتخصصة

9- مواقع المدونات الشخصية

10- أخبار من الأصدقاء

11- لا أتابع الأخبار

8 - في أي من الأنشطة الآتية تشارك عندما تتصفح الانترنت؟ وكم عدد المرات؟ " أرجو الإجابة عن كل عبارة"

لا استخدمه مطلقا	علي الأقل مرة في الشهر	أكثر من مرة في الشهر	مرة في الأسبوع	2-6 مرات في الأسبوع	مرة في اليوم	أكثر من مرة يوميا	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	في برامج المحادثات"الشات"
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	البريد الإلكتروني
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	قراءة الأخبار
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	البحث عن الخدمات والتسوق
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	الألعاب
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	البحث عن معلومات دراسية
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	الاستماع وتحميل الأغاني والموسيقى
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	أخري تذكر.....

9- هل تمتلك أي نوع من أجهزة الكمبيوتر(لاب توب-بي سي) ؟

2- لا

1- نعم

10- ما هي أكثر الصعوبات التي تواجهك دائما عند استخدام مواقع الانترنت؟ يمكن اختيار أكثر من إجابة

1- البطء في الاتصال أو تحميل الملفات

2-صعوبة اللغات الأجنبية لبعض المواقع

3-قلة وندرة بعض المعلومات التي ابحث عنها

4-الفيروسات

5-طلب الاشتراك ودفع رسوم في بعض المواقع

6- أخري تذكر.....

11- هل تري أن التغطية الإخبارية للأخبار السياسية علي مواقع الانترنت والصحف الإلكترونية، تغطية تفصيلية، تغطية في الحجم العادي أم تغطية غير كافية؟

1- تغطية تفصيلية

2- تغطية قليلة عن الحد المطلوب

تغطية كافية 1-

2-

18 - ما هو تقييمك لمدي احترام الحريات وحقوق الأفراد في البلد الذي تعيش فيه؟

- 1- قدر كبير من الاحترام للحريات وحقوق الأفراد.
- 2- حجم معقول الاحترام للحريات وحقوق الأفراد.
- 3- قدر قليل من الاحترام للحريات وحقوق الأفراد.
- 4- لا يوجد احترام للحريات وحقوق الأفراد.

19- اذكر اسم رئيس الوزراء الحالي لبلدك؟

.....

20- كم عدد أعضاء مجلس الشعب في بلدك تقريبا؟

.....

21- اسمح لي أن اعرض عليك بعض الشخصيات السياسية التي يتردد ذكر أسمائها كثيرا في الصحف ووسائل الإعلام مؤخرا، كما أرجو الإجابة ووضع علامة إذا كنت تعرفها أم لا؟ " أرجو الإجابة عن كل عبارة "

لا اعرفه	اعرفه	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	باراك اوباما
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	هيلري كلينتون
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	كوندليزا رايس
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	محمود احمدي نجاد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	احمد نظيف
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	إنجيلا ميركل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	محمد البرادعي
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	توني بلير
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	إفيجادور لبيرمان
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	فلاديمير بوتين
		جليبرت جلوبمان
		كوفي عنان

22 - هل صوت في الانتخابات الأخيرة في بلدك؟

1-نعم () 2-لا ()

23- افترض أن غدا الانتخابات البرلمانية أو الانتخابات الرئاسية . هل ستشارك فيها أم لا؟

نعم () لا ()

24- من وجهة نظرك.ما هي أكثر القضايا التي شغلت اهتمام الرأي العام القومي والدولي في وسائل الإعلام خلال عام 2009؟

25- عندما تلتقي أو تجلس مع الأصدقاء أو الأقارب. هل ترى أنك مهتم بمناقشة الأحداث الجارية والأمور السياسية ؟

دائما () أحيانا () لا نناقشها مطلقا ()

26- مع من تناقش الأمور السياسية والإحداث الجارية؟ يمكن اختيار أكثر من إجابة

- الأسرة ()

- الأصدقاء بالجامعة ()

- أصدقاء خارج الجامعة ()

- الجيران ()

- صديق بالسكن الجامعي ()

- الأصدقاء في غرف المحادثة علي الانترنت ()

-أخري ()

البيانات الشخصية

الكلية أو المعهد.....


النوع:

ذكر.....

أنثى.....

شكرا لحسن تعاونكم مع الباحث

Appendix. D. Agreement letter to apply Questionnaire in Egypt from Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics


جمهورية مصر العربية
قرار رئيس الجهاز المركزي للتعبئة العامة والإحصاء
بالتفويض
رقم (٢٧٣) لسنة ٢٠١٠

في شأن قيام الباحث / محمد احمد خليفة احمد - المدرس المساعد بكلية التربية النوعية - جامعة المنيا وعضو البعثة الخارجية بألمانيا - بإجراء دراسة ميدانية بعنوان (دور الإخبار السياسية علي شبكة الانترنت والصحف الالكترونية في تنمية الوعي السياسي لطلاب الجامعات المصرية والألمانية) وذلك للحصول علي درجة الدكتوراه .

رئيس الجهاز

- بعد الإطلاع على القرار الجمهوري رقم (٢٩١٥) لسنة ١٩٦٤ بشأن إنشاء وتنظيم الجهاز.
- وعلى قرار رئيس الجهاز رقم (٢٣١) لسنة ١٩٦٨ في شأن إجراء الإحصاءات والتعدادات والاستفتاءات والاستقصاءات.
- وعلى قرار رئيس الجهاز رقم (١٣١٤) لسنة ٢٠٠٧ بشأن التفويض في بعض الاختصاصات .
- وبعد الإطلاع علي مذكرة العرض علي رئيس الجهاز وموافقة سيادته علي ما ورد بها .
- وعلى كتاب وزارة التعليم العالي قطاع الشئون الثقافية والبعثات الوارد للجهاز في ٢٠١٠/٢/٢٨ .

قـرـر

مادة ١: يقوم الباحث / محمد احمد خليفة احمد - المدرس المساعد بكلية التربية النوعية - جامعة المنيا وعضو البعثة الخارجية بألمانيا - بإجراء الدراسة الميدانية المشار إليها بعالية .

مادة ٢: تجري هذه الدراسة علي عينة حجمها (٥٠٠) خمسمائة طالب من طلاب جامعة المنيا بمحافظة المنيا

مادة ٣: تجمع البيانات اللازمة لهذه الدراسة طبقاً للاستمارة المعدة لهذا الغرض والمعتمدة من الجهاز المركزي للتعبئة العامة والإحصاء وعدد صفحاتها ٧ صفحات (سبعة) .

مادة ٤: يشترط لإجراء هذه الدراسة موافقة السيد الأستاذ الدكتور رئيس جامعة المنيا وتحت إشراف السيد امين عام الجامعة .

مادة ٥: يراعى ضرورة موافقة مفردات العينة ومراعاة سرية البيانات الفردية طبقاً لأحكام القانون وعدم استخدام البيانات التي يتم جمعها لأغراض أخرى غير أغراض هذه الدراسة .


مادة ٦: يجري العمل الميداني خلال شهر اعتباراً من ٢٠١٠/٥/١ .


مادة ٧: يوافي الجهاز المركزي للتعبئة العامة والإحصاء بنسختين من النتائج الأولية لهذه الدراسة ثم يوافي بنسختين من النتائج النهائية عند الانتهاء من إعدادها .

مادة ٨: يقوم بجمع البيانات اللازمة لهذه الدراسة باحثين مصريين فقط .

مادة ٩: ينفذ هذا القرار اعتباراً من ٢٠١٠/٥/١ .

صدر في ٢ / ٢ / ٢٠١٠


محمد مختار زايد
مدير عام الإدارة العامة للأمن



Appendix. E. List of Tables

Note: The results presented bellows are in percentage:

Table E.1 “People use different sources to learn what is going on in their country and the world. Which kind of the following media do you use?”

Sources	Germany					Egypt				
	Always %	Sometimes %	Never %	Mean	SD	Always %	Sometimes %	Never %	Mean	SD
Local Newspapers	7.4	64.4	27.2	2.2	±0.5	28.8	47.8	22.4	1.9	±0.7
National Newspapers	5.0	56.0	38.2	2.3	±0.5	28.6	47.2	23.2	1.9	±0.7
News broadcast on local Radio	24.8	49.6	24.2	1.9	±0.7	14.4	26.6	57.4	2.4	±0.7
News broadcast on national Radio	12.6	48.2	38.6	2.2	±0.6	18.6	43.2	37.2	2.0	±0.7
News broadcast on local TV	10.6	41.4	46.2	2.3	±0.6	25.2	42.4	29.8	2.0	±0.7
News broadcast on national TV	43.4	47.4	8.2%	1.6	±0.6	47.4	42.2	9.0	1.6	±0.6
News broadcast in international TV	6.0	43.0	49.6	2.4	±0.6	60.0	31.4	7.8	1.4	±0.6
In depth reports on Radio	4.0	35.0	60.0	2.5	±0.5	18.8	35.4	44.2	2.2	±0.7
In depth reports on TV	14.4	74.2	11.0	1.9	±0.5	43.2	42.6	13.0	1.6	±0.7
Talkshaw program	1.6	28.6	68.6	2.6	±0.5	33.8	32.2	31.6	1.9	±0.8
Internet news sites	53.6	41.8	4.0	1.5	±0.5	39.4	39.0	19.2	1.8	±0.7
Others	4.2	3.4	3.6	1.9	±0.8	14.8	12.6	59.2	2.5	±0.8

Table E.2 ” Did your use of each of the following media increased, decreased, or stayed the same in the last few years?”.

Media outlet	Germany					Egypt				
	Increased %	Stayed the % same	Decreased %	Mean	SD	Increased %	Stayed the same %	Decreased %	Mean	SD
Internet	93.6	4.8	1.6	1.0	±0.3	87.0	9.2	3.8	1.2	±0.5
Newspapers	29.2	37.4	32.8	2.0	±0.7	49.6	30.8	19.2	1.7	± 0.8
Radio	26.2	29.0	44.4	2.0	±0.8	8.8	37.6	52.8	2.4	±0.6
TV	14.4	28.0	57.4	2.4	±0.7	51.2	27.8	20.4	1.7	±0.8
Video	10.4	29.8	58.6	2.5	±0.6	22.6	31.4	45.2	2.2	±0.8

Table E.3“Yesterday, did you get news from...?”

Media outlet	Egypt	Mean	SD	Germany	Mean	SD
Daily (newspaper)	32.2%	0.3	±0.5	14.0%	0.1	± 0.3
Radio	8.0%	0.1	±0.3	34.0%	0.3	± 0.5
TV	60.2%	0.6	± 0.5	48.8%	0.5	± 0.5
Internet Websites	47.4%	0.5	±0.5	63.4%	0.6	± 0.5
No news yesterday	10.4%	0.1	±0.3	12.2%	0.1	± 0.3

Table E.4“How much do you enjoy keeping up with news - A lot, some, not much, or not at all?”

News interest	Germany	Egypt
A lot	24.4%	39.0%
Some	59.6%	37.2%
Not much	14.6%	20.4%
Not at all	1.4%	3.4%
Mean	1.9	1.9
SD	± 0.6	± 0.8

Mean in Germany (M=1.9) Mean In Egypt (M= 1.9), Germany sample Nr. (500) & Egypt Nr (500)

Table E.5”Which kind of the following media do you use when you need to get more details about current political issues?”

	Egypt					Germany				
Sources of political News	Always %	Sometimes %	Never %	Mean	SD	Always %	Sometimes %	Never %	Mean	SD
Local Newspapers	28.0	38.0	31.6	2.0	±0.8	9.8	49.0	39.8	2.3	±0.6
National Newspapers	26.8	39.6	30.4	2.0	±0.7	12.2	49.4	36.6	2.3	±0.6
News broadcasts on local Radio	10.2	21.8	64.6	2.6	±0.7	10.0	38.4	49.4	2.4	±0.7
News broadcasts on national Radio	14.0	32.0	50.6	2.4	±0.7	12.8	36.0	49.4	2.37	± 0.7
Local news TV channel	19.4	39.6	37.8	2.2	±0.7	6.0	37.0	54.0	2.49	±0.6
National news TV channel	42.2	44.4	10.6	1.7	±0.7	36.4	46.0	15.4	1.8	±0.7
International TV channel	56.6	29.4	10.6	1.5	±0.7	5.8	37.6	54.2	2.5	±0.6
In depth reports on Radio	20.4	37.4	38.8	2.2	±0.8	5.4	28.0	64.0	2.6	±0.6
In depth reports on TV	38.6	34.0	23.6	1.4	±0.8	17.0	57.0	24.0	2.1	±0.6
Talk show programs	37.2	28.8	31.2	1.8	±0.8	2.2	22.6	72.0	2.7	±0.5
Internet news sites	43.4	25.8	25.6	1.8	±0.8	61.8	30.0	6.4	1.44	±0.6
Others	13.0	15.6	59.2	2.5	±0.7	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.0	±0.8

Table E.6-“When you go online, what online source do you use the most often when you are looking for political news or information on current events? “

Use online News Sources	Germany				Egypt			
	Yes %	No %	Mean	SD	No %	Yes %	Mean	SD
TV News Website	46.0	53.4	0.5	± 0.5	70.4	29.6	0.3	±0.5
Major newspapers Website	58.8	40.6	0.6	± 0.5	52.2	47.8	0.5	±0.5
News from Google, yahoo, etc	49.0	50.0	0.5	± 0.5	28.2	71.8	0.7	±0.5
Social Network news	16.6	82.2	0.2	± 0.4	69.6	30.4	0.3	±0.5
CNN Website	8.2	91.2	0.1	± 0.3	86.8	13.2	0.1	±0.3
Fox News Website	0.4	99.0	0.0	±0.1	94.8	5.2	0.1	±0.2
Aljazeera News Website	1.8	97.4	0.0	±0.3	67.6	32.4	0.3	±0.5
News from journalist blogs	7.8	91.6	0.1	± 0.3	90.0	10.0	0.1	± 0.3
Online news discussion blogs	19.0	80.4	0.2	± 0.4	91.4	8.6	0.9	±0.3
News from friends	20.0	79.4	0.2	± 0.4	73.8	26.2	0.3	±0.4
Others	6.4	93.0	0.1	± 0.3	94.8	5.2	0.1	±0.2

Table E.7“What kind of problems do you face when you browsing the Internet Websites?”

Problems	Germany				Egypt			
	Yes%	No%	Mean	SD	Yes%	No%	Mean	SD
Foreign language	17.8	81.6	0.2	± 0.4	26.4	73.6	0.3	± 0.4
Lack of information	42.2	57.2	0.4	± 0.5	19.8	80.2	0.2	± 0.4
Low speed	37.6	61.8	0.4	± 0.5	60.4	39.6	0.6	± 0.5
Paid for service	45.4	54.0	0.5	± 0.5	35.6	64.4	0.4	± 0.5
Viruses	14.6	84.8	0.1	± 0.4	30.2	69.8	0.3	± 0.5
Others	22.2	77.2	0.2	± 0.4	8.4	91.6	0.1	± 0.3

Table E.8“Do you think that political news in the Internet is giving too much coverage, too little coverage or the right amount of coverage to the political.

Political news on the Internet	Germany	Egypt
Too much coverage	8.6%	26.4%
The right amount coverage	50.6%	36.2%
Too little coverage	34.4%	34.0%
Mean	2.5	2.1%
SD	± 0.7	± 0.8

Mean in Germany (M=2.45) Mean In Egypt (M= 2.1%0), Germany sample Nr. (468) & Egypt Nr (477).

Table E.9”How much confidence do you have that the political news in the Internet is Giving the public an accurate picture of what is happening in all over the world?”

Confidence about political news	Germany	Egypt
A great deal of confidence	3.8 %	12.0 %
A fair amount of confidence	52.2 %	47.2 %
Not too much confidence	29.0 %	24.6 %
No confidence at all	1.6%	6.6 %
Don’t know	9.8 %	9.6 %
Mean	2.6	2.6
SD	± 0.1	± 1.1

Mean in Germany (M=2.0) Mean In Egypt (M=2.6), Germany sample Nr. (482) & Egypt Nr (500).

Table E.10 “Are you an active member, an inactive member, or not a member of one or several of the following organizations?”

	Egypt					Germany				
Organizations	Active member %	Inactive member %	Neither %	Mean	SD	Active member %	Inactive member %	Neither %	Mean	SD
Religious organizations	24.6	10.4	56.8	2.4	±0.9	9.0	17.2	72.2	2.6	± 0.6
Sport organizations	17.0	13.8	60.8	2.5	±0.8	29.2	9.8	58.8	2.3	± 0.9
Art, music organizations	12.6	11.0	67.8	2.6	±0.7	12.6	5.4	79.8	2.7	± 0.7
Educational organizations	17.8	12.6	60.8	2.5	±0.8	6.2	4.6	86.0	2.8	± 0.5
Labor Unions	0.0	0.0	91.2	3.0	± 0.0	0.2	1.2	95.4	3.0	± 0.1
Political party	8.2	9.4	73.8	2.7	± 0.6	1.4	2.2	93.2	3.0	± 0.3
Environmental organizations	5.6	8.4	77.4	2.8	± 0.5	1.8	6.4	88.8	2.9	±0.4
Professional association	0.0	0.0	91.2	3.0	± 0.0	1.6	4.4	90.6	3.0	± 1.4
Humanitarian or charitable organizations	20.2	10.4	60.8	2.4	± 0.8	5.8	9.2	82.2	2.8	± 0.5
Consumer organizations	4.2	5.6	81.6	2.9	± 0.5	0.6	1.6	94.8	3.0	± 0.2
Other:	5.2	1.6	83.4	2.9	± 0.5	6.6	3.8	79.6	2.8	± 0.5

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= Active member. 2= Inactive member. 3= Neither. 99 = non respond. Sample = 1000.

Table E.11” How interested would you say you are in politics?”

Degree of interest	Germany	Egypt
Not at all interested	2.8%	1.0%
Not very interested	20.8%	21.6%
Somewhat interested	52.6%	54.0%
Very interested	23.0%	22.2%
Mean	2.0	2.0%
SD	± 0.7	± 0.7

Mean in Germany (M=2.3) Mean In Egypt (M=2.01), Germany sample Nr. (496) & Egypt Nr (494)

Table E.12“I’d like you to write, for each one of these forms of political action that people can take, whether you have done any of these things, whether you might do it or would never do in future under any circumstances do it?”

	Egypt					Germany				
Political activities	Done %	Might do %	Never do in future %	Mean	SD	Done %	Might do %	Never do in future %	Mean	SD
Signing a petition	22.6	22.4	47.2	2.4	±0.9	49.4	29.4	15.8	1.6	±0.8
Written-mailed or called an elected official	13.8	24.0	54.4	2.6	±0.8	12.6	54.2	29.2	2.2	±0.6
Joining boycotts for specific products	40.6	16.	35.2	1.9	±1.0	31.0	43.4	22.6	1.9	±0.7
Attending peaceful demonstrations	25.0	21.2	46.0	2.3	±0.95	57.4	26.4	13.2	1.5	±0.7
Displayed a button, yard sign, bumper sticker, participate in protest or rally, or other sign to support candidate	12.0	18.0	62.0	2.7	±0.74	17.4	37.8	41.8	2.3	±0.7
Running for public office	23.0	16.8	52.4	2.4	±0.9	2.8	24.6	69.2	2.7	±0.5
Voted in elections	24.4	17.4	50.6	2.4	±0.9	85.4	8.2	3.6	1.2	±0.5
Talk to others on politics	33.6	9.6	49.0	2.2	±0.98	85.8	6.8	4.8	1.2	±0.5
Worked for or donated money to a party, candidate or interest group	4.8	9.2	74.0	2.8	±0.6	14.0	29.6	53.2	2.4	±0.7
Attend political meetings	19.0	12.0	60.0	2.5	±0.9	35.2	31.0	30.2	2.0	±0.8
Other	10.0	3.4	74.0	2.7	±0.7	1.2	4.2	5.4	2.6	±0.8

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= done. 2= might do. 3never do in future. 99 =non respond.

Table E.13“How important is it for you to live in a country that is governed democratically? On this scale, where (1) means it is “not at all important” and (10) means “it’s absolutely important”, what position would you choose?”

Items	Germany	Egypt
Not at all important	0.2%	2.4%
2	0.4%	0.0%
3	0.8%	1.8%
4	1.0%	3.4%
5	2.6%	7.0%
6	2.0%	5.2%
7	9.2%	5.8%
8	17.2%	9.2%
9	23.6%	5.6%
Absolutely important	41.8%	57.6%
Mean	8.8	8.5
SD	± 1.5	± 2.3

Mean in Germany (M=8.8) Mean In Egypt (M= 8.5) Germany sample Nr. (494) Egypt Nr (490)

Table E.14” How democratically is the country your are living in being governed today? using a scale from (1) to (10), where 1 means that it is “not at all democratic” and 10 means that it is “completely democratic,” what position would you choose?”

Items	Germany	Egypt
Not at all democratic	0.2%	28.0%
2	1.4%	6.0%
3	2.2%	9.0%
4	4.2%	11.8%
5	10.6%	9.4%
6	10.6%	8.6%
7	22.2%	5.0%
8	27.8%	4.6%
9	13.6%	2.0%
Completely democratic	5.4%	5.6%

Mean in Germany (M=7.1%0. SD=± 1.74) Mean In Egypt (M=4.1%3. SD= ± 2.69), Germany sample Nr. (491) & Egypt Nr (500), Note: Individual items ranged from 1= not at all important to 10= absolutely important

Table E.15 “How much respect is there for individual human rights nowadays in the country you are living in? Do you feel there is (A great deal of respect, fairly much respect, not much respect or no respect at all?

Items	Germany	Egypt
A great deal of respect	48.0%	15.2%
Fairly much respect	45.4%	28.4%
Not much respect	4.2%	41.0%
No respect at all	0.6%	12.6%

Mean in Germany (M=1.57. SD= ± 0.60) Mean In Egypt (M=2.52. SD= ± 0.90), Germany sample Nr. (491) & Egypt Nr (486)

Table E.16“Who is the current prime Minister/counselor in your country?”

Country	Correct	Not Correct	Mean
Egypt	91.6%	8.4%	0.90
Germany	95.8%	2.0%	0.98

Mean in Germany (M=0.98. SD= ± 0.14) Mean In Egypt (M= 0.9. SD= ± 0.3)

Germany sample Nr. (489) & Egypt Nr (499)

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= correct answer. 0= not correct. 99= non respond.

Table E.17“How many members of parliament/ Federal Parliament are there in your Country?”

Item	Germany	Egypt
Fully Correct	5.6%	29.6%
Nearly Correct	21.8%	22.0%
Not Correct	41.2%	44.6%

Mean in Germany (M=2.5. SD=± 0.6) Mean In Egypt (M= 2.2. SD=± 0.9) Germany sample Nr. (443) & Egypt Nr (479)

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= fully correct. 2= nearly correct. 3 =not correct. 4= non respond.

Table E.18“I would like to ask you about some personalities who have been in the news recently, if you know or don’t know them?”

	Egypt				Germany			
Names	Know him %	Do not know %	Mean	SD	Know him %	Do not know %	Mean	SD
Ahmed Nazif	91.6	8.40	0.9	± 0.3	10.0	89.0	0.1	± 0.3
Avigdor Lieberman	24.8	75.2	0.3	± 0.4	13.0	86.0	0.1	± 0.3
Mohamed El-Baradei	81.0	19.0	0.8	± 0.4	18.6	80.0	0.2	± 0.4
Gilbert Guillaume	16.6	83.4	0.2	± 0.4	18.8	80.2	0.2	± 0.3
Mohamed Ahmadinejad	65.4	34.6	0.7	± 0.5	64.0	35.0	0.7	± 0.5
Condoleezza Rice	82.6	17.4	0.8	± 0.4	84.0	15.0	0.95	± 0.4
Kofi Annan	82.0	18.0	0.8	± 0.4	84.4	14.6	0.95	± 0.4
Tony Blair	58.6	41.4	0.6	± 0.5	94.2	4.8	0.95	± 0.2
Vladimir Putin	40.0	60.0	0.4	± 0.5	97.4	1.6	0.98	± 0.1
Angela Merkel	35.8	64.2	0.4	± 0.5	97.6	1.4	0.99	± 0.1
Hillary Clinton	79.0	21.0	0.79	± 0.4	98.4	0.6	0.99	± 0.8
Barack Obama	97.4	2.60	0.97	±0.2	99.0	1.0	1.0	± 0.0

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= Know him or her. 0 =do not know No 99= non respond.

Table E.19“Did you vote in your country’s recent elections?”

Participation in current election	Yes	No
Germany	85.2%	13.6%
Egypt	28.4%	70.6%

Mean in Germany (M=0.9); Mean In Egypt (M= 0.3; SD=± 0.5)

Germany sample Nr. (496) & Egypt Nr (495)

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= Yes. No 99= non respond.

Table E.20“If there were a national election next Sunday 2010, will you participate?”

Participation in next election	Egypt		Germany	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
	67.4%	32.0%	91.2%	7.4%

Mean in Germany (M=1.08. SD=± 0.26); Mean In Egypt (M= 0. .68; SD= ± 0. .47)

Germany sample Nr. (493) & Egypt Nr (497)

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= Yes. No 99= non respond.

Table. E 21 “when you get together with your friends, would you say you discuss Political matters frequently, occasionally or never?” *Germany sample Nr. (490) & Egypt Nr (471)*

Political discussion	Germany	Egypt
Frequently	21.8%	27.8%
Occasionally	69.2%	60.0%
Never	7.0%	6.4%
Mean	1.9	1.8
SD	± 0.5	± 0.6

Table E.22 “With who do you discuss the current political events”?

	Germany				Egypt			
I discuss political with..	Not Chosen %	Chosen %	Mean	SD	Not Chosen %	Chosen %	Mean	SD
Friends	12.8	84.6	0.9	±0.3	65.8	34.2	0.3	±0.5
Family	8.0	89.4	0.9	±0.3	20.2	79.8	0.2	±0.4
Classmate	41.4	56.0	0.6	±0.5	79.8	20.2	0.2	±0.4
Colleagues	82.8	14.6	0.2	±0.4	31.6	68.4	0.7	±0.5
Friends in chat	86.6	11.0	0.1	±0.3	79.4	20.6	0.2	±0.4
Neighbor	93.0	4.4	0.1	±0.2	87.6	12.4	0.1	±0.3
Others...	93.2	4.0	0.0	±0.2	86.8	13.2	0.1	±0.3

Note: Individual items ranged from 1= Yes. 0 = No. And 99= non respond. *Germany sample Nr. (490) & Egypt Nr (471)*

Declaration

PhD Dissertation: Students' Exposure to Political News on the Internet and Political Awareness: A Comparison between Germany and Egypt. I herewith declare that I have produced this research without the prohibited assistance of third parties and without making use of aids other than those specified; notions taken over directly or indirectly from other sources have been identified as such. This study has not previously been presented in identical or similar form to any other German or foreign examination board.

The Dissertation work was conducted from May 2007 to October 2010 under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Donsbach, at Philosophy Faculty, Technical University of Dresden. I declare that I have not undertaken any previous unsuccessful doctorate proceedings. I declare that I recognize the doctorate regulations of the faculty of Education at Dresden University of Technology.

Dresden, December 2011

Mohamed Ahmed

Erklärung

Ich erkläre hiermit, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit ohne unzulässige Hilfe Dritter und ohne Benutzung anderer als der angegebenen Hilfsmittel angefertigt habe. Die aus anderen Quellen und der Literatur direkt oder indirekt übernommenen Daten, Konzepte und Texte sind unter Angabe der Quelle gekennzeichnet.

Bei der Auswahl und Auswertung folgenden Materials haben mir die nachstehend aufgeführten Personen in der jeweils beschriebenen Weise entgeltlich/unentgeltlich (Nichtzutreffendes streichen) geholfen:

- 1-
- 2-
- 3-

Weitere Personen waren an der inhaltlich-materiellen Erstellung der vorliegenden Arbeit nicht beteiligt. Insbesondere habe ich nicht die entgeltliche Hilfe von Vermittlungs- bzw. Beratungsdiensten (Promotionsberater oder anderer Personen) in Anspruch genommen. Niemand hat von mir unmittelbar oder mittelbar geldwerte Leistungen für nicht angegebene Arbeiten erhalten, die im Zusammenhang mit dem Inhalt der vorgelegten Dissertation stehen.

Die Arbeit wurde bisher weder im In- noch im Ausland in gleicher oder ähnlicher Form einer anderen Prüfungsbehörde vorgelegt.

Ich habe bisher an keiner anderen deutschen oder ausländischen Hochschule den philosophischen Doktorgrad erworben oder den Erwerb dieses Grades endgültig nicht bestanden.

Ich versichere, dass ich nach bestem Wissen die reine Wahrheit gesagt und nichts verschwiegen habe.

Vor Aufnahme der obigen Erklärung wurde ich über deren Bedeutung und über die strafrechtlichen Folgen einer unrichtigen oder unvollständigen Erklärung belehrt.

Ort, Datum
December 2011

Unterschrift Dresden,
Mohamed Ahmed

Unterschrift und Dienststellung des die Erklärung aufnehmenden Beamten oder Angestellten.

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